DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 278 037 CS 210 275

AUTHOR Millar, Dan Pyle
TITLE Introduction to Small Group Discussion.
INSTITUTION ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Urbana, Ill.; Speech Communication Association, Annandale, Va.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE 86
CONTRACT 400-86-0045
NOTE 76p.; TRIP: Theory & Research into Practice Series.
AVAILABLE FROM Speech Communication Association, 5105 Backlick Rd., Building E, Annandale, VA 22003 ($6.00 prepaid).
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052) -- Information Analyses - ERIC Information Analysis Products (071) -- Tests/Evaluation Instrumen

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Class Activities; *Communication Research; *Group Discussion; *Group Dynamics; Higher Education; Secondary Education; *Small Group Instruction; *Speech Communication; Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

To bring educational research into focus with tested classroom practice, this booklet provides an introduction to small group discussion. The theory and research section discusses the importance of small group discussion, characteristics of small group discussions, group attraction based on Maslow's hierarchy of basic human needs, group decision making, the development of effective groups, and group strengths. Suggesting activities intended to enhance the understanding of these theoretic concepts, the practice section discusses (1) introducing group discussion in the classroom using sociogram and group membership data; (2) defining small group discussions; (3) assessing group attraction via a questionnaire and a group benefit/cost comparison; (4) the process of group decision making using various small group "opinionnaires," two case study problems, and a discussion sequence guide focusing on feedback; (5) developing effective groups using a personal report of communication apprehension, a discussant rating form, self-evaluation of participation, a post-discussion opinionnaire, a discussion of behaviors with normative value, Bales Interaction Process Analysis, an analysis of roles, and a cohesiveness scale; (6) creating several groups to explore various forms of leadership, providing a leadership behavior opinionnaire for the self-assessment of leadership ability, and discussing leadership's function; and (7) evaluating group usefulness. A note to instructors focuses on cooperative learning. Sample opinionnaire forms are included throughout the text. (JD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED278037

THEORY & RESEARCH INTO PRACTICE

Introduction to Small Group Discussion

Dan Pyle Millar

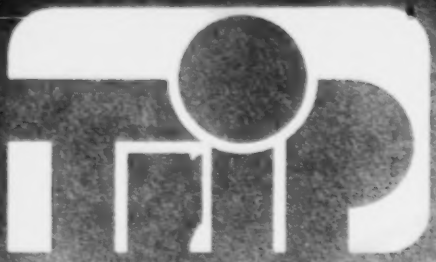
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

CS 210 275



Introduction to Small Group Discussion

Dan Pyle Millar
Department of Communication
Indiana State University

Speech Communication Association Publications Board: James Chesebro, Queens College, *Chairperson;* Linda Putnam, Purdue University; Marion Kleinau, Southern Illinois University; William Work, Speech Communication Association, *ex officio.*

Consultant Readers: Linda Putnam, Purdue University; Jack Parker, Northern Illinois University; Barbara Henn, Park View High School, Loudoun County, VA.

Speech Communication Module, ERIC/RCS: William Work, Module Director, Don M. Boileau, Assistant Director, Penny Demo, Assistant Director.

Book Design: Tom Kovacs for TGK Design

Published 1986 by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801, and the Speech Communication Association, 5105 Backlick Road, Building E, Annandale, Virginia 22003.

OERI This publication was prepared with funding from the Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, under contract no. 400-86-0045. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the Speech Communication Association for critical review and determination of professional competence. This publication has met such standards. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the Speech Communication Association or the Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Library of Congress Catalog Card No. 86-060814

Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills
Office of Educational Research and Improvement

Speech Communication Association
5105 Backlick Road, Building E, Annandale, Virginia 22003

Contents

	Foreword	vi
1	**Theory and Research**	1
	Importance of Small Group Discussion	1
	Characteristics of Small Discussion Groups	2
	Group Attraction	3
	Group Decision Making	4
	Development of Effective Groups	7
	Group Strengths	14
2	**Practice**	17
	Introducing Group Discussion in the Classroom	17
	Defining Small Discussion Groups	23
	Assessing Group Attraction	24
	Discussing Decision Making	27
	Developing Effective Groups	38
	Leadership	55
	Evaluating Group Usefulness	62
	A Note to the Instructor	63
	Notes	65

Foreword

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a national information system developed by the U.S. Department of Education and sponsored by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI). ERIC provides ready access to descriptions of exemplary programs, research and development reports, and related information useful in developing effective educational programs.

Through its network of specialized centers or clearinghouses, each of which is responsible for a particular educational area, ERIC acquires, evaluates, abstracts, and indexes current information and lists that information in its reference publications.

The ERIC system has already made available—through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service—a considerable body of data, including all federally funded research reports since 1956. However, if the findings of educational research are to be used by teachers, much of the data must be translated into an essentially different context. Rather than resting at the point of making research reports readily accessible, OERI has directed the ERIC clearinghouses to commission authorities in various fields to write information analysis papers.

As with all federal educational information efforts, ERIC has as a primary goal bridging the gap between educational theory and classroom practice. One method of achieving that goal is the development by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS) of a series of booklets designed to meet concrete educational needs. Each booklet provides teachers with a review of the best educational theory and research on a limited topic, followed by descriptions of classroom activities that will assist teachers in putting that theory into practice.

The idea is not unique. Several educational journals and many commercial textbooks offer similar aids. The ERIC/RCS booklets are, however, noteworthy in their sharp focus on educational needs and their pairing of sound academic theory with tested classroom practice. And they have been developed in response to the increasing number of requests from teachers to provide this kind of service.

Topics for these booklets are recommended by the ERIC/RCS National Advisory Board. Suggestions for topics are welcomed by the Board and should be directed to the Clearinghouse.

Charles Suhor
Director, ERIC/RCS

1 Theory and Research

Importance of Small Group Discussion

Small groups, which provide emotional support for their members, make decisions regarding organizational policy, decide the guilt or innocence of wrongdoers, and make recommendations to governmental, corporate, and not-for-profit institutional leaders. They are the most pervasive communication setting in the American culture, and this pervasiveness will continue. John Naisbitt, in *Megatrends*, argues the move from a representative to a participatory democracy is one of the major trends shaping America now and that it will continue to shape the country in the future. He writes, "The ethic of participation is spreading bottom up across America and radically altering the way we think people in institutions should be governed. Citizens, workers, and consumers are demanding and getting a greater voice in government, business, and the marketplace. *The guiding principle of this participatory democracy is that people must be part of the process of arriving at decisions that affect their lives* (italics added)."[1] Researchers at Tufts University's Center for the Study of Decision Making make the connection between participatory democracy and small groups: "The decisions that affect the future of our civilization and the human race are, increasingly, made in a *group* context."[2] They go on to argue that "group processes are not simple extensions and elaborations of the processes that characterize individuals; when people convene in groups, a new entity is created, with its own dynamics and complexities, and its decisions cannot be predicted even from a thorough knowledge of its constituent members."[3] Two reasons to study small groups, then, are (1) the increasing importance of the group as an arena for making decisions that govern our lives and (2) the idea that any "group" becomes a separate entity, not merely a collection of members. A third reason to study small groups is the impact these groups have upon the individual members.[4] Groups force rules of behavior upon individuals, rules that guide members to behave appropriately around others.[5] Finally, small group discussion deserves study because individuals trained in the small group decision-making process make better participants in such groups than people who lack the training.[6]

1

2

Characteristics of Small Discussion Groups

A number of definitions of small groups exist in the materials of business, counseling, psychology, sociology, and speech communication. Seven qualities continuously reappear as differentiating small discussion groups from other human aggregates:

1. Perception. People, including both the group members and the observers outside the group, perceive the collection of individuals as a unit.

2. Motivation. Individuals are attracted to a group and remain in it because of the qualities of the group's activities and members and the needs met by group participation.

3. Goal Orientation. Groups are purposeful, with activities directed toward the achievement of goals.

4. Structure. Two concepts describe structure. First, over time groups will develop a hierarchy of status; different individuals will portray different roles. As the group continues, these roles will be viewed differentially, with some perceived as more important to the group than others. By and large, the roles enhance task achievement (the extent to which the individual helps the group achieve its goal), as well as the socio-emotional climate (the extent to which an individual supports the other individuals, maintaining the relationships of the group). The second structural concept is how the group is organized to achieve its goals. Does the group approach its goal systematically or randomly? Is the system known by the group's members?

5. Interaction. For a group to be a group, the members must interact, which usually means talking face-to-face.

6. Interdependence. Interdependence suggests the group members share some common fate. If one individual is affected by events within and outside the group, the remainder of the group is also affected. Or, if one member is changed, the group changes.

7. Size. Small discussion groups generally contain no fewer than three and no more than fifteen people. Some research recommends a small group should be between four and five,[7] but the practical desire to insure involvement pushes that number toward an upper limit of fifteen.

Group Attraction

People join groups because they find groups attractive. This attraction may take the form of a physical attraction to the individual members;[8] a perceived similarity of attitude,[9] personality,[10] and/or ability;[11] or the consideration that the activities and goals of the group are enticing or rewarding.[12] Individuals also join and remain in groups in order to fulfill personal needs.[13] Maslow describes a hierarchy of basic human needs, most at which are appropriately satisfied by a group.[14] The needs, beginning with the most basic, are: (1) physiological, (2) safety, (3) affection, (4) self-esteem, and (5) self-actualization. Certainly working in groups can help individuals solve such physiological and safety needs as the provision of food, water, and shelter; the avoidance of injury, pain, and death; and the creation of a predictable environment. Affection and self-esteem can also be met by working in groups. The former occurs because other group members include the individual in their activities, showing affection toward him or her. The latter stems from others' recognition of the individual's achievements. Finally, self-actualization may emphasize the individual but it may be best achieved within a group context; becoming an outstanding athlete, musician, actor, or author all require the presence of others.

William C. Schutz also describes the group as the basic context within which individuals satisfy needs for inclusion, affection, and control.[15] Inclusion is the need to establish and maintain satisfying relationships with other people that is expressed as a desire to include others in activities and a desire to be included in their activities. The need for affection is the necessity of establishing and maintaining love relations with others, reflected by the need to give affection to others and the desire to receive it in return. Control is the need to establish and maintain power relations with others, or a desire to control the activities of other people and the desire in turn to be controlled by others. Both the desire to express and the desire to receive inclusion, affection, and control require other people. The natural place to encounter others is in small groups.

Regardless of the need conceptualization, individuals remain in groups if the cost of membership does not exceed its benefits.[16] Costs include the time spent in preparing and participating in meetings, the money contributed to the group, and the interpersonal effort of relating to others. Benefits to an individual include the satisfaction of the needs of inclusion, affection, control, or self-actualization, and the participation in activities viewed as valuable by others. The individual has two standards against which the attractiveness of membership is measured: the

level of maximum satisfaction (MS) and the level of least satisfaction (LS), which is the minimum standard for remaining in a group. If the individual calculates that the cost of group membership is very low and the value of the benefits is very high, then the ratio of benefit/cost exceeds 1.0 high, and the individual will remain in the group. If satisfaction falls to the LS level while the costs rise (more money, more frustration, fewer satisfying relationships, etc.), the individual will search for affiliation with other groups. Those other groups would be expected to increase the benefit/cost ratio. If we consider MS to be the maximum satisfaction gained once the costs of participating in the group are removed, the LS to be the least acceptable level of satisfaction gained once the costs are removed, and MS_{alt} to be the maximum satisfaction perceived from membership in alternative groups, then six possibilities exist for individuals as group members:[17]

1	2	3
MS	MS	MS_{alt}
MS_{alt}	LS	MS
LS	MS_{alt}	LS
HAPPY	HAPPY but dependent	HAPPY but improvable
4	**5**	**6**
MS_{alt}	LS	LS
LS	MS_{alt}	MS
MS	MS	MS_{alt}
UNHAPPY but can be improved	UNHAPPY and still unhappy after some improvement	HOPELESS

An individual will remain in a group as long as the maximum satisfaction received exceeds the level of least satisfaction and participation in alternate groups appears satisfying.

Group Decision Making

Decision-making Continuum

Although a number of conceptualizations of decision making and group problem solving are available in the literature, generally each conceptualization includes the following six stages.[18]

Stage One	Stage Two	Stage Three	Stage Four	Stage Five	Stage Six
Identify problem	Analyze problem	Generate alternative solution	Evaluate all and select best solution	Implement the best solution	Monitor and evaluate solution implementation

CHOICE MAKING

DECISION MAKING

PROBLEM SOLVING

Virtually all conceptualizations of problem solving or decision making have their roots in the work of John Dewey as presented in his 1910 book, *How We Think*.[19] He described the first six steps above as the "reflective thinking" of the individual. Although Dewey did not consider small group discussion when conceptualizing his reflective thinking process, subsequent authors have made the connection. While the teaching of small group discussion emphasizes the problem-solving process (all six steps), the continuum suggests that not all groups making choices participate in all aspects of the decision-making process. An executive committee of a hospital may choose between two staff reports recommending new billing procedures (choice making). The same executive committee may delegate implementation and review to an ad hoc task force of department heads from the hospital. In this case, the effectiveness of the decision is entirely dependent upon the problem identification, diagnosis, and solution completed by another committee. The group who did the groundwork for problem solving (1) does not make the decision, (2) has no responsibility for the decision, and (3) has no involvement in the implementation or the review of the decision. Although such a procedure expedites the functioning of an organization, such a procedure is fraught with the potential for error.

Formats

Although several formats have been proposed by different writers, three emerge from communication literature. The first, extrapolated from Dewey's reflective thinking pattern, is sometimes called the Reflective Thinking Format or Standard Agenda.[20] The format may be stated in a series of questions: (1) Does a problem exist? (2) What are the causes and consequences of the problem? (3) What are possible solutions to the problem? (4) What criteria must be met by the "best" solution? Which set of recommendations meet this criteria? (5) What policies and procedures are needed to implement the "best" solution? (6) Who, and on what criteria, will undertake an evaluation of implemented solution?

The other two formats, developed by Charles Larson, also utilize a series of questions to keep the group moving toward a decision.[21] The first format is called Ideal Solution Format. The questions the group answers are: (1) What is the nature of the problem? (2) What would be the *ideal solution* from the viewpoint of all parties involved in the problem? (3) What changes must be made in order to remedy the problem? (4) What available solutions best approximate the ideal solution?

The second format is called the Single Question Format. This format asks the group the following questions: (1) What is the *single most crucial question* that the group needs to answer in order to accomplish its purpose? (2) What subquestions must be answered before this single most important question is answered? (3) Do we have sufficient information available to answer the subquestions? (4) What are the most reasonable answers to the subquestions? (5) Assuming that the group has answered the subquestions correctly, what is the best solution to the problem?

Functions

Hirokawa indirectly answered the question of which of the formats leads to the most effective decision making by studying a functional approach to decision making.[22] His basic proposition was that the format of discussion was relatively unimportant if the group adequately performed the following four functions during its discussion:

1. The group needs to understand thoroughly and accurately the problem presented to it.
2. The group must marshal a range of realistic and acceptable alternatives.
3. The group must assess thoroughly and accurately the positive consequences associated with each alternative choice.
4. The group must assess thoroughly and accurately the negative consequences associated with each alternative choice.

The study demonstrated that most groups that achieved at least two of the requisite functions had higher quality decisions than those which did not. Further, those that performed three of the four had higher quality decision making than those that performed only two. The two functions to make the most difference in separating groups were numbers 1 and 4.

The answer to the question "Which format is best?" appears to be "It makes no difference so long as the major functions are satisfied."

All three of the formats assist the group in identifying and satisfying the four important requisite functions necessary for a quality decision.

The four functions can be organized into two categories of thinking. The determination of the problem and the assessment of the positive and negative consequences can be considered as requiring *critical* thinking. The creation of alternatives solution to the problem may be considered *creative* thinking. Yinger clarifies the distinction between the two types: "The creative aspect allows us to generate new ideas, possibilities, and options. The critical aspect allows us to try out, test, and evaluate these products. All complex thinking activity involves both aspects, though possible in varying mixtures."[23]

Techniques for Stimulating Creative and Critical Thinking

Brainstorming is a useful technique for stimulating creative thinking. Brainstorming increases the quantity of ideas. The four principal rules governing a brainstorming session are: (1) ideas should be expressed freely, (2) no positive or negative criticism of any idea is allowed during the session, (3) all ideas are encouraged, and (4) many ideas are generated based on the assumption that quantity will eventually breed quality. Frequently brainstorming sessions occur as part of a group's discussion. The most important rule governing brainstorming sessions appears to be the elimination of criticism of one another's comments. When that rule was enforced, groups generated a better quality and a greater quantity of ideas than groups who did not adhere to that principle.[24]

The use of a devil's advocate, a role often given to a group member by the leader, encourages critical thinking within a group. The purpose of the role is to challenge statements and conclusions presented to the group so that ideas are properly evaluated and refined. In describing "groupthink," Janis reported that President Kennedy used this technique to encourage better decision making among his advisory group.[25]

Development of Effective Groups

Conditions Necessary for Discussion Group Development

Four qualities are required to create groups that are relatively effective in their process and discussion output. First, members need to participate in the activities of the group. Second, members need to conform to the standards, or norms, of the group. Third, members need to

develop roles that they find comfortable and that mesh with the roles of the other individuals. Fourth, the members need to be committed to the group so that it can be described as cohesive.

Participation

Cattell coined the word *syntality*, which refers to the group's personality.[26] The syntality of the group comes from *synergy*, or the amount of energy contributed by its individual members for use in the group's activity. The group syntality, then, is determined by the total amount of energy given by its members and the use of that energy, whether it be group maintenance, the development and nurturing of interpersonal relationships, or group tasks, the work undertaken by the group. The energy becomes available to the extent that the individual participates in the activities. If a group member has an idea, a fact, a criticism, or a reward for another group member that is never expressed, then that resource (energy) is not available to the group. In a real sense, the total synergy of the group is diminished. Members need to participate in order to contribute. Participation is a fundamental condition for effective group discussion, but some people fear participation.

McCroskey has explicated the concept of communication apprehension (CA), a measurable state/trait.[27] The development of the concept has lead to an instrument, the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA), which generates five scores: total CA, CA in dyads, in small groups, in meetings, and in public speaking. An individual who has a reported high CA in small groups will likely avoid joining groups. Or, once in a group, will be reluctant to contribute verbally to the group. In Cattell's terms, the individual will withhold energy from the group, thereby diminishing the total resource of synergy available to the group for group maintenance or group tasks. Some evidence exists that reports an inverse relationship between communication apprehension and the perception of a group leader as member.[28]

Conformity

Group standards are usually called norms, or the rules determining what is appropriate or inappropriate behavior of members.[29] At least five characteristics of norms can be inferred from this definition. First, standards, or norms, exist as a belief within most group members. Second, standards need not be explicitly stated to be understood and agreed to by members of the group. Third, if a member deviates from the norm, the other members will react to that deviance. Fourth, this reaction, an application of sanctions, will force everyone to adhere to the same set of standards. Fifth, the existence of standards allows

individuals not only to judge the appropriateness or inappropriateness of their own behavior, but also to anticipate the behaviors of others toward them, the group, and one another.[30]

Although the norms and standards are not usually stated, an observer watching a group interact may identify the standards governing the group. Observers can answer the following questions: (1) In what ways do they talk to one another—formally or informally? (2) Is humor used? (3) Do all members participate? (4) Are all members encouraged to participate? (5) Do members come prepared for the discussion? (6) Does the interaction flow from the position of leader to member back to leader? Or, does the interaction flow from member to member, sometimes excluding the leader? (7) Do members regularly acknowledge the contributions of others with praise?

Because norms provide standards for the behavior of individuals and expectations of how others will behave toward the individual, norms are necessary for the group to work together. As such, the development of norms during group interaction is important. Shaw, summarizing research on norms in the form of hypotheses, presents the following:

> A high status member may deviate from the group norms without being sanctioned if his/her deviancy contributes to goal attainment.
>
> Individuals differ in their predisposition toward conformity to group norms.
>
> The more ambiguous the situation, the greater the probability that a group member will conform to the perceived norms of the group.
>
> A member is more likely to conform to group judgment when there is unanimous agreement among the other members than when there is not.
>
> An individual who perceives him/herself as more competent than others in the group will be less inclined to conform to group standards.
>
> Conformity introduces order into the group process and promotes coordination of individual behavior.
>
> Deviation from a group norm usually elicits sanctioning behavior by the other members of the group; continued deviation may lead to rejection.[31]

Roles

In order for the group to become effective, individuals need to develop roles that they find comfortable and that are beneficial to the group.[32] A role can be viewed as a set of behaviors a person typically enacts while participating in a group.[33] Three aspects of the role influence the individual's behavior: the *expected* role, the behavior that other mem-

bers of the group expect from the individual; the *perceived* role, the behavior that the individual thinks should be enacted; and the *enacted* role, the individual's actual behavior.[34] Over time, as the behavior of an individual is either rewarded or punished by other group members, the individual will continue to perform or not perform that behavior. As the various positively rewarded behaviors become consistent, they merge into a full-fledged role.[35] As individuals move from group to group, their repertoire for behaving within groups enlarges. Therefore, the role, or roles, played by individuals will change as they move from one group to another. If the individual misunderstands the expectations of others, misreads the needs of the group, or finds the behaviors expected incongruent with the behaviors in his or her personal repertoire, then the individual may experience role conflict.[36] Three types of role conflict have been identified: intrarole conflict—when an individual experiences the conflict by playing a single role; interrole conflict—when a person has to simultaneously play two different roles; and interpersonal role conflicts—when at least two individuals compete for the same role.[37]

A classification system of roles based upon verbal behavior has been offerred by Benne and Sheats.[38] The roles cluster around the two dimensions of groups—tasks and maintenance—necessary for group effectiveness. They also identify verbal patterns of behavior that detract from the effectiveness of the group.

Tasks Roles

Initiator—defines the group goal, contributes ideas and suggestions, and proposes solutions.

Information Seeker—asks for facts, information, and clarification and promotes participation by others.

Energizer—attempts verbally to motivate members and to stimulate the group to greater productivity.

Orientator—keeps the group discussing the issue and guides the discussion toward the goal.

Information Giver—offers facts, examples, statistics, and any other evidence directly pertaining to the task.

Opinion Giver—offers values or opinions about the ideas under discussion.

Coordinator—attempts to clarify the relationships between the facts, examples, statistics, ideas, and suggestions given by other members of the group.

Evaluator-Critic—evaluates the evidence presented to the group.

Maintenance Roles

Encourager—provides praise, understanding, support, and acceptance of others, their ideas, and suggestions.

Harmonizer—mediates disagreements between members by reducing tension.

Compromiser—mediates disagreements by finding an acceptable solution between the positions of the opposing parties.

Standard Setter—articulates the group standards/norms and goals.

Follower—passively accepts the ideas, evidence, and conclusions presented by other members.

Individual Roles

Aggressor—attacks verbally the status or self-esteem of another individual.

Recognition Seeker—takes the spotlight by boasting or reporting of personal achievements.

Dominator—asserts authority by manipulating members or attempting to take over the group; often engages in lengthy monologues as a way of controlling the interaction.

Blocker—interferes with the progress of the group for no apparent reason; often negative, stubborn, and disagreeable.

Playboy/Playgirl—lacks involvement in the group and uses the group for irrelevant purposes.

A danger exists in identifying and labeling these patterns: members will begin to label themselves and others without giving full consideration to the behaviors each performs. Clearly, a role is determined by the expectations of others, the individual's perception of what the group needs, and the repertoire of behaviors that can be enacted. Since those expectations, perceptions, and behaviors will change over time as the group changes, and will change between groups, the roles any one individual plays will also change. However, the lists do demonstrate that some tasks and maintenance behaviors are necessary for the group to accomplish its goal and sustain the interpersonal relationships.[39]

Cohesion

Cohesiveness generally has been perceived as the strength of the individuals' desire to remain members.[40] Janis, drawing upon a work of Kurt Lewin, argues that cohesiveness is a member's positive value for the group and a motivation to continue to remain a member. When a group is cohesive, members express solidarity, mutual liking, and positive feelings about participating in the group and carrying out its routine tasks.[41] Cohesiveness has been studied both as an antecedent and as a

consequence of group discussion.[42] The determinants of cohesion include the amount of self-disclosure and feedback,[43] member compatibility,[44] group training,[45] group structure[46] and risk taking.[47] As an antecedent condition, cohesion has been related to outcomes,[48] conformity,[49] productivity,[50] and behavioral change.[51] Stokes argues that a curvilinear relationship exists between the intermember attraction, the instrumental value of the group, the risk taking, and the cohesion of the group.[52] The notion of a nonlinear relationship between variables and cohesion is intellectually intriguing. Certainly, the group needs to have a certain amount of "stick-togetherness" in order to function.[53] On the other hand, when keeping the group together becomes the paramount purpose of the group, its critical functionings may be limited. This point is the major assumption made by Janis in his discussion of groupthink.[54] As cohesiveness increases, members become more attracted to the group and develop a greater desire to take part in its programs.[55] Zander reports that as group cohesiveness becomes stronger, members talk more readily, listen more carefully, influence one another more frequently, volunteer more frequently, and seem to adhere to group standards more closely.[56] In short, groups must cohere in order to perform. And, once cohesive, a group behaves somewhat differently from groups that are not cohesive.

Leadership

A special group member role is that of leader. Bass describes leadership from several different perspectives including the focus of group process, the director of group activities, the instrument of goal achievement, the processor of mutual stimulation (stimulation that controls human energy), and the initiator of group structure.[57] Common to these and the rest of Bass's definitions are leadership as a social influence, an aid to goal achievement, and a conductor of group communication.[58]

One way to describe leadership is in terms of autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire style, a conceptualization proposed in the work of Lewin.[59] The autocratic leader assumes intellectual superiority over members of the group. Autocrats determine policy, dictate activities, assign work and work partners, and criticize work while remaining aloof from active group participation. Democratic leaders tend to view policies as matters for group decisions: activities are determined through discussion, members may work with anyone, tasks are divided by the group, and members are praised by a leader who tries to behave as a regular group member. Laissez-faire leaders leave complete freedom for any decisions to the group. The activities of the group are determined by the

group without leader intervention. The leader does not participate in the work, in the division of labor, or in the selection of work partners. The laissez-faire leader participates infrequently, and does not attempt to guide the group or to appraise its progress. In general, groups that have democratic leaders are more satisfied, and function in a more orderly and positive way than groups led either by autocratic or laissez-faire leaders.[60]

While the autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire styles are differentiated by the leaders' attitudes and beliefs toward the group, Likert differentiated leaders according to the method of power each used.[61] The exploitive-authoritative person primarily uses force, or controls the rewards and punishments to achieve compliance with his or her wishes. The benevolent-authoritative leader relies upon legitimate power, including the power of the leader position to influence the group. The consultative leader makes the decision for the group but only after asking the members of the group for the facts and their opinions and beliefs. The participative leader allows groups members to participate in the decision-making process, gaining power in the ability to persuade. The two authoritative leaders view themselves as the rightful agent of group decision. The consultative leader assumes a similar view, except member input is solicited. Only the participative leader views the group as a legitimate source of decision making.

The functional approach is another way to conceptualize leadership. This approach perceives group members as leaders to the extent that they perform functions (behaviors) associated with leading the group. The functions correspond with the two dimensions of group behavior, tasks and maintenance. Generally, group maintenance functions include promoting participation, regulating the interaction, promoting cooperation, resolving conflict, protecting the rights of individuals within the group, promoting group development, rewarding group members, and accepting the responsibility for group failure. Tasks functions include informing, planning, orienting, coordinating, evaluating, and stimulating.[62] To the extent that individuals perform these functions, which are essential for the effective operation of the group, the members will be perceived as exhibiting leadership. Baird and Weinberg relate the type of functions performed by leaders to the development of the group itself.[63] Behaviors can be collapsed and sequenced into the categories of translation, organization, and motivation. In the translation stage, leaders are responsible for translating individual, personal goals into a composite group goal. In the organization stage, participation needs to be encouraged and regulated, while cooperation among the members is promoted. The leader clarifies the group's progress while assisting in

the coordination of the members' activities. In the final stage, motivation, which is an important function of leadership throughout the life of the group, members need to be reminded that achievement of the group goals will lead to the achievement of individual goals. Individuals need to be rewarded for their contributions and the group itself must be rewarded for its performance. So long as the major functions of leadership are performed, the group itself will complete its tasks and maintain itself effectively.

Hersey and Blanchard, however, present a different conceptualization of leadership.[64] Their situational model of leadership is an interplay of the amount of the leader's task direction, the amount of relational support the leader supplies, and the maturity of the group. Figure 1 reveals four leadership styles—telling, selling, participating, and delegating—varying with the emphasis upon tasks or maintenance—as well as group maturity. For a group containing members low in maturity, a group in which members are unwilling or unable to accept responsibility for the group, the telling style may be the most appropriate. The leader shows little concern for the relationships between the members but is directive in defining the roles and the goals of the group and directing the behavior of the individuals. In the selling quadrant, people may be unable to perform but willingly accept responsibility for the group or have confidence in their ability but lack the appropriate skills. The leader sells by directing behavior while providing socio-emotional support for the individuals by reinforcing their desire and enthusiasm for the work. In the participating style, members can do the work but for some reason lack the willingness or the security to do so. Being competent but unwilling, their reluctance may be a motivational problem. The leader needs to be highly supportive of the members, sharing decision making and facilitating and communicating with the various members. The delegating style best serves an able, competent, willing, and confident group. The leader charges the group with a task but allows them to carry it out with little interference. Since motivation is not a problem, the group needs little leader support.

Regardless of the perspective from which leader and leadership is viewed, none yet accounts for the complexity of the role—behaviors, situations, perceptions, strategies—nor the complexity of the leader-follower relationship.[65]

Group Strengths

Working in groups motivates the individual members. Some theorists argue that the mere presence of other people is sufficient to motivate

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP*

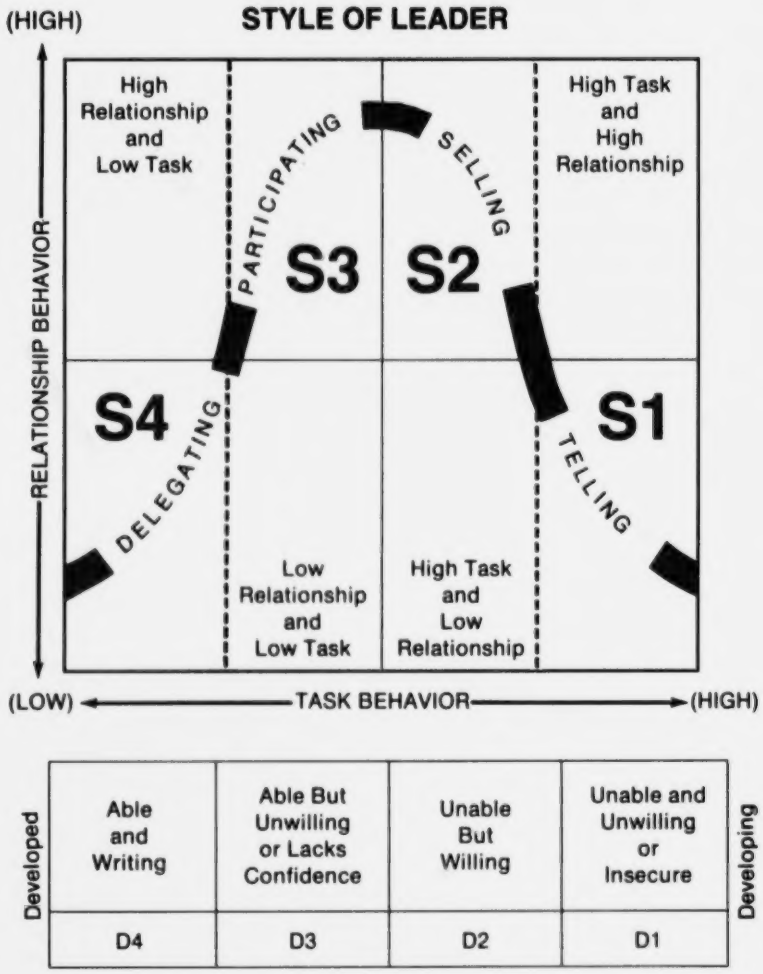


Figure 1. From: Hersey and Blanchard. "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership."

members while others argue that the presence of others coupled with any postdiscussion evaluation that occurs is motivational.[66]

Participating in groups encourages the individual members to be more accepting of the decisions of groups.[67] This conclusion has become axiomatic in profit and not-for-profit organizations as justification for the involvement of workers in decisions directly affecting their work life.

Groups tend to perform more effectively when the task can be divided and requires a variety of information.[68] It is not surprising, then, that groups tend to perform better than individuals on tasks that require learning and/or problem solving. Groups tend to learn faster than individuals working alone.[69] This condition appears to be the case when the learning task is problem solving requiring cooperation rather than the condition of mere rote learning.

Finally, groups are effective at decision making, learning, and problem solving when time is not important. Groups take longer to arrive at decision than individuals.[70] Working with others requires cooperation, coordination, and the maintenance of interpersonal relationships, none of which the individual demands when working alone.

Discussion groups have characteristics and qualities that influence their performance, including the development of norms, roles, and styles of leadership. Coming together in groups tends to increase the motivation of the participants. Groups are pervasive in our social and working institutions. Whether playing basketball, coordinating a homecoming parade, or designing technology for a space station, much of the work will be completed in groups.

The Practice section suggests activities that will enhance the understanding of the theoretic concepts just presented.

2 Practice

Introducing Group Discussion in the Classroom

In teaching small groups, the overriding goals should be: (1) to develop the student's understanding of the course's content and (2) to develop the student's application of knowledge to the process of group discussion. To achieve those ends, most class activities should include a verbal consideration of group discussion. No group activity should take place, or be concluded, without the group itself discussing its own discussion process. Process observers, sometimes members of the group, sometimes specially selected, can be assigned to witness and evaluate group interaction. At specified times throughout the discussion, the observer can offer to the group a description and evaluation of the process. This feedback can be given orally, based upon criteria the group has accepted, or it can be given using observation/evaluation forms. Virtually every text on small group communication contains forms that focus on observer feedback. As students become more sophisticated in their knowledge of small groups, of small group process, and of themselves as members of groups, the observation/feedback should become specific in criticism and praise.

The Sociogram is one observational instrument that reports who spoke to whom and how frequently. (See page 18.)

Sociogram Data

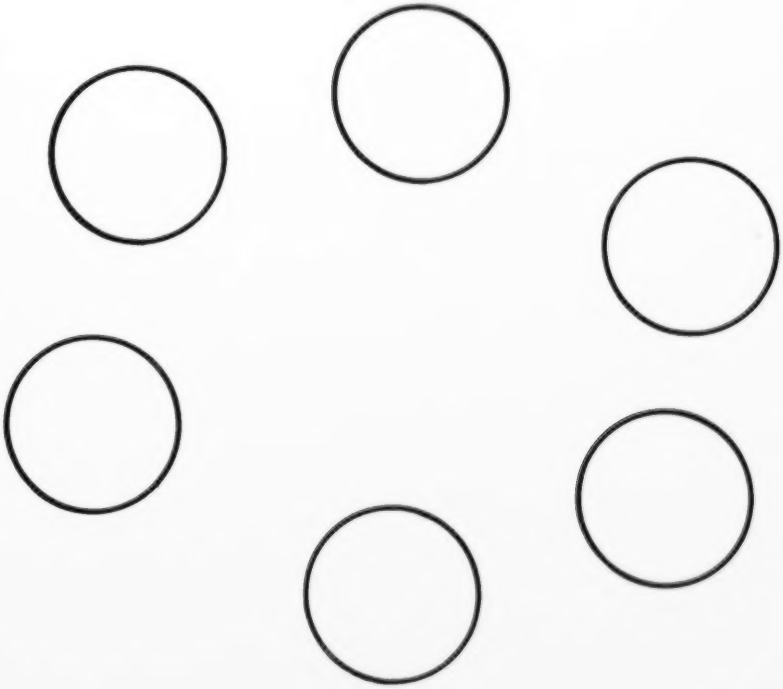
1. Total number of messages _____.
2. Total number of messages sent by each person.

_____ ____ __% _____ ____ __%
name name

_____ ____ __% _____ ____ __%
name name

_____ ____ __% _____ ____ __%
name name

Sociogram of Group Interaction



3. Which pair talked most together? _____ and _____.
4. Total number of messages received by each person.

_____ ____ __% _____ ____ __%
name name

_____ ____ __% _____ ____ __%
name name

_____ ____ __% _____ ____ __%
name name

5. Total number of messages received by the group.

_____ _____ %

For the initial utterance of one speaker, a line is drawn to the member addressed, with an arrowhead drawn at the end of the line. Arrowheads are drawn for all subsequent comments addressed from the initial speaker to the recipient. If the recipient of the remark is undetermined or if the comment was intended for the whole group, the arrow should point outside of the circle. At the end of the discussion, the total number of remarks can be computed as well as the percentages for each individual. Percentages of remarks addressed to the group or to other individuals can be determined also. This observation of who speaks to whom and how frequently is important because it may indicate leadership or deviance.

How long people speak can be illustrated by completing the Member Speaking Time form. (See page 20.)

Form: Member Speaking Time

Instructions: Symbolically identify each member with a letter. As people speak, write their symbol in the speaker column. Time the number of seconds they speak. Mark an X in the time column that approximates the length of the utterance. Round the *longest* second for every instance of speaking by every speaker. When the group has finished, draw a line from the speaker's name to the X for each utterance. The group now has a graphic record of the total number of utterances, of who spoke, in what order they spoke, and for how long they spoke.

Over the course of the discussion, this form will provide the quantity and length of utterances. The total amount of time that each individual spoke can be computed, as well as an average length of utterance for each individual. The frequency and length of utterance is an indicant of leadership, dominance, or deviance. One time analysis observer should be assigned to observe no more than two members of a group.

The Sociogram and the Member Speaking Time forms focus the group's attention upon its process whereas activities focus attention upon the content. Most of the activities in this booklet prescribe groups of five or six. It should be noted that group size affects group interaction. All of the activities can be modified by varying the group sizes.

Group Membership

As an introductory activity, ask students to identify the small groups of which they are members, using the membership form. (page 21). Each group should then be designated by its primary purpose: social, task,

Member Speaking Time

Names of Group Members

A_____ D_____

B_____ E_____

C_____ F_____

Speaker Order	Speaker	Time (in seconds)																		
		2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30	32	34	36	38 +
1.																				
2.																				
3.																				
4.																				
5.																				
6.																				
7.																				
8.																				
9.																				
10.																				
11.																				
12.																				
13.																				
14.																				
15.																				
16.																				
17.																				
18.																				
19.																				
20.																				
21.																				
22.																				
23.																				
24.																				
25.																				

or learning. A social group's primary purpose is to get together, to interact, and to share one another's company. Many clubs, church groups, and service clubs organize for the social interaction, although they may also undertake some important work. A task group's primary purpose is to accomplish work, although there may be positive social implications for the members. Organizational task groups such as executive committees and boards of trustees for profit and not-for-profit agencies, subcommittees of the Congress, and juries are groups brought together to accomplish work. A learning group's primary purpose is to learn new information or skills. Students in peer learning groups and groups organized at workshops and conferences are groups whose primary purpose is to learn new material. Then, have students indicate whether they consider themselves central or peripheral members. Individuals who are at the core of a group are more likely to be influenced by its standards/norms than are members who consider themselves peripherally involved."[1]

Group Membership

Instructions: Think of the groups in which you hold membership. Identify them. Indicate their primary purpose for existing by writing S (social), L (learning) or T (task) in the appropriate column. If you belong to a multiple purpose group, identify the primary and the secondary purpose by writing the primary letter over the secondary: L/S or T/S. Place yourself in the group as central (part of the core of people who most influence the direction of the group) by writing a C in the appropriate column, or as a Peripheral member by writing a P.

Group (Name)	Purpose (S, L, T)	Self-location (C, P)
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		

7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		
11.		
12.		

As the instructor, compile the results either on the blackboard or in a handout for the class. Discuss in class the following questions: What is the average number of groups to which each individual belongs? In how many groups does the individual feel herself/himself a central member? a peripheral member? Which groups are identified as being social, learning, or task groups? Do most of the groups have multiple purposes? In what ways do the groups try to achieve multiple purposes? Students may become more aware of small groups in their lives by identifying the groups, the groups' purposes, and their own place within the groups.

Expert Interviews

Divide the class into dyads for the purpose of interviewing organizational executives. The interview should discover the extent to which small discussion groups are used by the interviewee's organization—determination of the overall mission of the organization, formation of policies and procedures, evaluation of personnel, and/or evaluation of organizational goal achievement. The pairs should be encouraged to interview the executive together to cross-check their separate perceptions and to ask for an evaluation of the effectiveness of discussion groups in achieving organizational purposes.[72] Each dyad should come to class with a brief report of their interview. Student pairs can be combined into four-person units to discuss the results of the interviews. Each unit can create a report of the importance of groups in organizations for the class, as a written paper or as an oral presentation.

Defining Small Discussion Groups

Create-a-Definition

Before discussing or having students read about small groups, divide the class into groups of three to five. Ask each group to create a written definition of small discussion groups and a list of important characteristics differentiating discussion groups from other collections of people. When all the groups are finished, ask each group to share its deliberations with the class. Compare and contrast the definitions and the distinguishing characteristics presented by the groups. Agree as a class on a definition and a list of distinguishing characteristics. Then, have students compare the class definition and characteristics with the seven qualities used earlier in this booklet to describe small groups.

What similarities and differences appear? A discussion of the group membership activity introduced earlier can be compared with the seven defining characteristics. What are the sizes of the groups in which students hold membership? Do students perceive the group as a unit? What initially motivated them to join the group? Are they satistfied with their membership? Why? In what ways are their groups structured? Do they see the members as interdependent? If some of the groups identified by the students do not meet these criteria, then discuss whether the group should be removed from the original lists or if the defining characteristics should be modified.

Definition Search

In another activity, instruct students to locate and report definitions of small groups from writings in psychology, sociology, business, communication and counseling. Compare and contrast the different definitions. Discuss the characteristics of small groups that are most common to these definitions. Are these qualities consistent or different from the seven qualities (perception, motivation, goal orientation, structure, interaction, interdependence, and size)?

Aggregate or Group?

Approaching the defining of small groups slightly differently, offer the students a definition and/or the seven distinguishing qualities of small groups. Ask students to create a list of groups to which they belong that do not match the definition or the characteristics. What makes the groups not meeting the characteristics different from those that do?

Assessing Group Attraction

Ask students to complete and score the Group Attractiveness Questionnaire for one of their small discussion groups. Divide the class into groups of three to five students according to the type of small group (social, learning, task) they used to complete the questionnaire.

Group Attractiveness Questionnaire

Name of Group _____ Type _____

Circle the number that best indicates the extent of your agreement with each statement. Answer for the group identified only. Work quickly. Be honest. There are no right answers.

I find the other members of the group physically attractive.

Strongly Agree		Neutral		Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

I find important attitudes, beliefs, values of the other members similar to my own on most topics.

Strongly Agree		Neutral		Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

I find the personalities of the other group members pleasing to me.

Strongly Agree		Neutral		Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

I find the physical and mental abilities of other members relative to the activities of the group comparable to my own abilities.

Strongly Agree		Neutral		Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

I find the activities and goals of the group attractive to me.

Strongly Agree		Neutral		Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

I find my initial motives for joining the group are satisfied by the group—its activities and its members.

Strongly Agree		Neutral		Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

TOTAL SCORE _____

Group Very Attractive	28–30
Group Moderately Attractive	22–27
Group Not Attractive or Unattractive	16–21
Group Moderately Unattractive	10–15
Group Very Unattractive	6–9

Compare answers and scores in class. Compute and average the score for each question on the questionnaire. Are there differences between the average score for the questions by type of group? If "yes," what are the nature of those differences? If "no," what may be the reasons for finding no differences?

The group members can also discuss the nature of the change in their perception of the group's attractiveness since they became members. What were the individuals' evaluations when they initially joined the group? If the attractiveness of the group has changed, either becoming more attractive or less attractive, what has influenced the change? If the group is identified as unattractive, why does the individual remain in the group? Discuss the "cost" of remaining in a relatively unattractive group with the perception of "benefits" from membership. And compare the answers of cost and benefit for unattractive groups to the continuation of membership when the benefits (as expressed in group attractiveness) exceed the cost of membership.

Maslow Needs

In another activity, ask each student to bring to class a paragraph describing a Maslow need they think is met by one of their groups.

Specifically, the student paragraphs should identify a physiological, safety, affection, self-esteem, self-actualizational need that can be met by membership in the group. On the day that the paragraphs are due, divide the class into groups of three to five. Ask the groups to compare the needs indentified and the extent to which those needs are fulfilled. Afterward, have each group share its conclusions with the class.

Inclusion, Affection, and Control Needs

This activity requires the purchase of a FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation).[73] FIRO-B will provide six scores, measuring a student's wish to *receive* and wish to *express* the needs for inclusion, affection, and control. FIRO-B should be scored according to the manual or by the instructions in the book *Interpersonal Underworld* by William C. Schutz.[74] After students have received their scores, ask them to write a brief paper analyzing their needs. Are the scores congruent with their perceptions of inclusion, affection, and control? If congruent, to what extent does their membership in one, two, or three groups help to satisfy their needs? Students may report their needs are not met in one group. In that case, to what extent does membership in several groups fulfill the meeting of those needs? Students also can describe an ideal group, one that might satisfy the majority of their needs.

Group Benefit/Cost Comparison

Ask the students to complete the Group Benefit/Cost Comparison. On the day the comparison is due, divide the class into small groups. The group members should compare their answers, developing a composite list of the costs and benefits for group participation. Ask each group to report the results of its deliberations to the class. Compare the costs and benefits for all the groups.

Group Benefit/Cost Comparison

Name of Group _____

Instructions: In the appropriate column, list the costs and benefits of the group that you have selected. Be specific. For example, as a cost, write "two-hour weekly meeting held in the late afternoon." For a benefit, write "interaction with people from across campus and/or around

the community." List as many as you think pertinent. Do not be limited by the number of lines on the form.

COSTS		BENEFITS	
	Weight		Weight
1.	( )	1.	( )
2.	( )	2.	( )
3.	( )	3.	( )
4.	( )	4.	( )
5.	( )	5.	( )
6.	( )	6.	( )
7.	( )	7.	( )
8.	( )	8.	( )
9.	( )	9.	( )
10.	( )	10.	( )
11.	( )	11.	( )
12.	( )	12.	( )
Total Cost		Total Benefit	

$$\frac{\text{Total Benefit}}{\text{Total Cost}} =$$

Extend the exercise by asking the class to rank order the costs and the benefits from 1 to 10, with 10 the most costly or most valuable. Those costs and benefits on the individual's report, but not included on the list developed by the class, rank as zero. Now ask each student to return to his or her list of costs and benefits and give weight to each item according to the rank order. The costs regarded as "most expensive" or "most valuable" give the weight of 10. Add the cost and benefit weights. Using the totals, create a ratio of benefits over costs. (A ratio greater than 1 means the student was benefiting from membership in the group.) This activity numerically displays the extent to which students gain from continuing participation in a small group.

Discussing Decision Making

Word Generation

One relatively simple decision task is the creation of a list of words from a single word. Contributions be several people enhance the chance

that the list will be thorough. The activity takes students through problem identification, problem analysis, alternative solution generation, and "best" solution selection. The rules for the game are: (1) words must be four or more letters, (2) words that become four letters only with the addition of *s* are not allowed, (3) only one form of a verb may be included (for example, either *punch* or *punched* but not both), (4) proper nouns are not allowed, and (5) slang words do not count. Two example root words are:

GOBLINS

glib, glob, globin, bingo, bison, blin, boils, bong, ling, lingo, lion, loin, longs, losing, noil, sign, silo, sing, sling, slob, slog, snob, soil, soli, soling, song

SKEPTICS

sect, sept, septic, sick, site, skep, skies, skip, skit, spect, specs, spice, spies, spike, spit, spite, steps, stick, sties, stipes, epic, pecks, pest, pice, pick, picket, pike, ticks, tike, cess, cist, cite

Occasionally students do not see how this task exemplifies the four stages of the decision-making process. Before they begin generating words, make each group state what they see as the problem (task), reported in the form of question or statement. Second, point out to the students how the rules of the game become the criteria for evaluating the various solutions. Third, remind them that all possible letter configurations, some of which make no sense, form the solutions.

The activity can be used to demonstrate the difference between "performing tasks in groups" and "performing tasks alone" by directing some students to generate words in groups while other students work by themselves. When comparing the number of words generated by individuals and groups, usually the groups will generate more words. Sometimes this is not the case, but the exercise can still be used to discuss decision making as well as the productivity of individuals working alone as opposed to individuals working within a group.

Individual and Group Decisions

A slightly more difficult task requires the individual to complete a task alone prior to reaching a decision in group. The individual and then the group must identify the problem, analyze it, generate alternatives, evaluate the choice (determine the positive or negative consequences) and implement it (complete the opinionnaire). Four such activities follow: the first two assess opinions while the last two demand specific information.

Opinionnaire on Small Groups

Instructions: Place an A (agree) or a D (disagree) on the blank in the column labeled I (for individual). When working within a small group, record the group's decision in the column labeled G.

I		G
____	A primary concern of all group members should be to establish an atmosphere where each person feels free to express his or her opinions.	____
____	Almost any job that can be done by a group can be done better by an individual.	____
____	Personal satisfaction cannot be achieved if group goals are placed ahead of individual goals.	____
____	A group should make certain that all members understand the problem before they begin to develop solutions.	____
____	As long as the task is accomplished, it matters little how the group members feel about how well they worked together.	____
____	If a person does not wish to contribute to the discussion of the group, that person should not be required to do.	____
____	In a group with a strong leader, an individual will feel more able to express feelings openly than in a leaderless group.	____
____	The responsibility for the success or failure of the group rests upon the shoulders of the designated or appointed leader.	____
____	Disagreement and criticism of others' ideas have no place within democratic discussion groups.	____
____	Groups can be productive because two heads are better than one.	____
____	When a group member knows how to solve the group's problem, that member should be permitted to "take over" the group.	____
____	There are times when democratic group methods must be abandoned in order to solve the problems confronting the group.	____

Opinionnaire on Womanhood

Instructions: Place an A (agree) or a D (disagree) on the blank in the column labeled I (for individual). When working within a small group, record the group's decision in the column labeled G.

I		G
____	Despite the efforts of NOW, political parties, and the government, employment practices in the U.S. still discriminate against women.	____
____	The use of female sex appeal in advertising should be prevented by law.	____
____	The open display of nudity and sexual activities in films and on television is demeaning to women.	____
____	Women should have the right to abortion on demand.	____
____	Women should receive equal pay for equal work.	____
____	Women should be given preference in hiring in order to correct past discrimination.	____
____	Women should be able to have sterilization without the consent of anyone.	____
____	Beauty contests should be abolished because they emphasize the belief that women are objects for men's use.	____
____	Women should be denied special treatment by welfare agencies if they have children and no live-in husband or father.	____
____	A woman should be permitted to use any level of force, including killing an attempting rapist, to prevent an unwanted violation of her body.	____

The following two activities make still greater demands upon the student since they require some prior knowledge. In fact, there are right and wrong answers that can be discovered through research. To encourage the individual to think about the process, the exercise sheets can be distributed before the discussion takes place with the students instructed to complete them.

High-Tech Home Appliances

Instructions: Individually rank the ten high-tech appliances with 1 meaning the appliance is found in the *greatest* number of American households.

Within the parentheses [( )], estimate what percentage of the 87 million U.S. households the appliance is found in. Within a group, discuss your rankings and arrive at a group decision.

Individual (%)		*Group (%)*
_____ ( )	Pay TV (movie channels)	_____ ( )
_____ ( )	Phone answering device	_____ ( )
_____ ( )	Personal computer	_____ ( )
_____ ( )	Microwave oven	_____ ( )
_____ ( )	Camcorder	_____ ( )
_____ ( )	VCR	_____ ( )
_____ ( )	Modem	_____ ( )
_____ ( )	Compact disc player	_____ ( )
_____ ( )	Cable TV	_____ ( )
_____ ( )	Video camera	_____ ( )

Answer: A Yankee Group Report as reported in *Newsweek*, February 17, 1985, p. 5.

1. (57%) Microwave oven
2. (52%) Cable TV
3. (36%) VCR
4. (26%) Pay TV
5. (19%) Personal computer
6. (12%) Phone answering device
7. (5%) Compact disc player
8. (3%) Modem
9. (3%) Video camera
10. (1%) Camcorder

Risk of Dying

Instructions: Rank the thirty items according to the risk each possesses for causing death. Report your ranking in the Individual column. Write the decision of your group in the Group column.

Individual		Group
_____	Nuclear power	_____
_____	Motor vehicles	_____
_____	Handguns	_____
_____	Smoking	_____
_____	Motorcycles	_____
_____	Alcoholic beverages	_____
_____	General (private) aviation	_____
_____	Police work	_____
_____	Pesticides	_____

_____	Surgery	_____
_____	Fire fighting	_____
_____	Large construction	_____
_____	Hunting	_____
_____	Spray cans	_____
_____	Mountain climbing	_____
_____	Bicycles	_____
_____	Commercial aviation	_____
_____	Electric power (nonnuclear)	_____
_____	Swimming	_____
_____	Contraceptives	_____
_____	Skiing	_____
_____	X-rays	_____
_____	High school and college football	_____
_____	Railroads	_____
_____	Food preservatives	_____
_____	Food coloring	_____
_____	Power mowers	_____
_____	Prescription antibiotics	_____
_____	Home appliances	_____
_____	Vaccinations	_____

Experts ranked the risks: 1-Motor vehicles, 2-Smoking, 3-Alcoholic beverages, 4-Handguns, 5-Surgery, 6-Motorcycles, 7-X-rays, 8-Pesticides, 9-Electric power (nonnuclear), 10-Swimming, 11-Contraceptives, 12-General (private) aviation, 13-Large construction, 14-Food preservatives, 15-Bicycles, 16-Commercial aviation, 17-Police work, 18-Fire fighting, 19-Railroads, 20-Nuclear power, 21-Food coloring, 22-Home appliances, 23-Hunting, 24-Prescription antibiotics, 25-Vaccinations, 26-Spray cans, 27-High school and college football, 28-Power mowers, 29-Mountain climbing, 30-Skiing. (From *Psychology Today*, June 1980, p. 47.)

Individual and Group Solution Generation

An increasingly complicated decision-making task requires the participants to generate their own answers and solutions and to share those solutions with the group, which must agree upon a decision. One such exercise is the Time Capsule.

Time Capsule

Time capsules are left for future generations so that they will know our era's culture and values. You are a committee assembled to determine what objects will be put into a time capsule reflective of your university during this year.

The capsule is a 3-by-3-foot concrete block. Whatever is selected must fit into the block. The block will become a cornerstone of a new building planned to house communication-related departments and activities (journalism, radio/TV/film, speech communication, tele-electronics, university newspaper, yearbook, radio and TV stations, and film production labs).

Under I, write your individual selections. Under G, write the selections for inclusion in the time capsule agreed upon by the group.

I	G
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

The decision-making task can be enhanced if the group is prevented from offering solutions until it first has correctly identified the problem/task before it. Once the goal is stated, discussion can proceed but must be stopped again when the group is asked to identify the criteria it's using to select the items. Occasionally, student groups will jump to the listing of "things" before being sure of the purpose of a cornerstone, the purpose of the items within the cornerstone, or without realizing the size of a 3-by-3-foot cube.

Case Study Solutions

The most complex form of decision making requires a group to work through all six stages, including the last two stages of implementation of the best solution and the development of a plan for monitoring and changing the solution. If the case is complex, as the two below are, students should be given time outside of class to prepare for the discussion.

Case Study: Professor Clinton

Professor Clinton teaches at a large state university that does not use the honor system. Examinations are closely proctored and other precautions are taken to prevent cheating. But Professor Clinton believes in individual integrity. He does not enforce the proctoring regulation, especially when he has a reasonable opportunity to avoid it. He had such an opportunity when a student missed the objective final examination and asked to make it up. Professor Clinton gave the student several essay questions, and provided him with a chair and table in his office. After telling him to leave his examination paper on the desk when he had finished, the professor left for the library.

The professor returned in two hours to find the student gone and the examination paper on the desk. On reading the paper he suspected it had been copied from several books in his office. He verified the plagarism.

The professor had authority to give the student an *F* on the exam, to give him an *F* in the course, or even to report him to the Dean of Student Affairs for disciplinary action. "However," he reflected, "I knew this student was doing poorly in the course when I left him alone in my office. Did I not put temptation in his path? Am I, rather than the student, mainly responsible for his dishonesty?"

"On the other hand, he knows cheating is inexcusable behavior regardless of circumstances. Should I punish the behavior? If so, in what way?"

What should Professor Clinton do about this incident?

Case Study: American People's Bank

Ken Mileti, Vice President for Branch Operations, received a call from the Personnel Office expressing mild concern over a personnel problem that may be developing at the McGuirk Avenue branch. Several tellers have complained about their raises, and one teller has quit, citing the low level of raise as a reason for her leaving the bank. A bit puzzled by the call, Ken went to his personal file on the branches and found no

notes to himself, nor from others, suggesting the existence of a problem at the McGuirk Avenue branch.

Later in the week, a letter and a form came to him from the Personnel Office of Second National Bank asking for an evaluation of Carolyn (Lyn) Spinner. The letter stated that she had applied for the Executive Training Program at Second National and asked that the evaluation form be completed from the perspective of Ms. Spinner as a potential executive. Although the letter did not say specifically, Ken assumed that Lyn had listed him as a reference since they had known one another for several years beginning when he was a Branch Manager and she a new teller. Her apparent interest in another bank bothered him because she had been a good employee in her eight years with the bank—five years as a teller and the last two years as head teller of the McGuirk Avenue branch. During those eight years, she had completed high school through an adult education program and was about to graduate from the University of Michigan–Flint with a major in finance and a minor in information systems. Lyn had been noticed by the Executive Committee of the American People's Bank, a committee that screens candidates for executive positions within the bank. Ken knew Carolyn had been told of the bank's interest in her as a potential line officer.

Looking over her personnel file, Ken noted that Carolyn had received considerable praise in her yearly evaluations during the first six years she was with the bank, although most evaluators noted areas in which she could improve. She had received the maximum raise possible for nonexecutive employees in five of the eight years and had been awarded two trips (Las Vegas and Hawaii) for winning bank-sponsored employee-incentive contests. In the last two evaluations, however, she had received only "average" ratings on the personnel evaluation form and had been recommended for "average" merit raises. No mention was made of poor work, no suggestions for improvement were given, nor did the evaluator note any special strengths nor check on the form that this employee was "prepared for advancement." The last two evaluations were completed by Ralph Broker, the McGuirk Branch Manager for the past eighteen months.

Ralph, who had been with the bank for two years, became a branch manager upon completion of a six-month training program. He was a management major as an undergraduate, completing his degree in 1972. He worked as a truck driver after completing his B.S., traveled, and then served four years in the U.S. Navy. As part of the training program, personnel evaluation is discussed and the bank forms and policy explained, although no trainee actually evaluates employees. Although a manager for only fifteen months, he had been responsible for two employee

evaluations, the first coming approximately three months after he became manager of the McGuirk Avenue branch.

As part of his routine visitations to the branch offices, Ken talked with Ralph. Ralph reported that "all was well," that the "employees were fine," and that "everyone is doing a good job." When indirectly asked about his employee evaluation program, Ralph responded that he meets with his people individually for about fifteen minutes during the two weeks prior to submitting employee evaluations to the main office. Following his conversation with Ralph, Ken cashed a check and watched the employees performing their routine tasks. Everything seemed in order. Carolyn smiled at him as he left.

The final decision on merit-pay increases is made by the Personnel Committee, mainly comprised of senior executives but with major employee groups represented. This committee determines the total percent of merit monies available and scales supervisor's specific recommendations to fit those monies. Generally, they follow the recommendations of the supervisors, believing that the person "closest to the action" is in the best location to evaluate. The deadline is October 15th so that raises and bonuses can be announced prior to the holidays.

Before completing the recommendation for Second National, Ken called Carolyn asking for an update on her career. He then asked her, "Why the interest in changing jobs and banks?" "I've gone as far as I can go here," was her response. She explained that she felt more confident now that she had completed her education and that she wanted to move into an executive line position. Asked if anyone expressed dissatisfaction with her work, she replied, "No, no one has said anything, but . . . well, that seems to be the case." Continuing to probe, Ken got the following comment, "Ralph says I'm doing fine. He has no complaints." Lyn concluded the call by thanking Ken for his interest in her and his willingness to serve as a reference.

What should Vice President Mileti do?

Groups can be stopped at any point in the discussion and asked to identify the stage of the discussion. In this way, the instructor can correct the decision making as it progresses. Recall that Hirokawa found that effective groups were most aware of what they were required to do. Experiences with student and adult groups suggest that most groups start solving a problem *before* they can accurately articulate what they are to be doing. Once they are sure of the task, many will still propose solutions without considering the criteria, usually implicit, before they begin to generate their solutions. Frequently, a group will propose a solution and a plan for monitoring it without considering the advantages or disadvantages of adopting the solution. The cases, and other complex

tasks, also can be used to exemplify the different formats for making decisions: Single Question, Ideal Solution, and Reflective Thinking/ Standard Agenda. One group can be given no format—just instructed to solve the problem. In this way, the results of the deliberations could be compared across formats.

Observation Feedback

Any of these tasks can be completed by the use of brainstorming and of devil's advocate role-playing. The time capsule activity particularly lends itself to the use of brainstorming as a way to generate the greatest number of objects for inclusion in the cornerstone. The case of Professor Clinton lends itself to the use of the role of devil's advocate, since the person in the role can be instructed to accept *no suggestion* for problem identification, analysis, criteria, solution, or plan of implementation without challenging every idea.

The Discussion Sequence Guide is an instrument that can provide feedback to the group concerning the orderliness of its discussion.

Discussion Sequence Guide

As you listen to the discussion, make note of those comments that help you determine which decision-making stage the group is undergoing. Paraphrase the contributions that best exemplify the stage. Number each comment you record so that you can review the progress of the key statements. When the group has completed its discussion, you should have a representative collection of comments, in the order given. Then complete your evaluation of the group at the bottom of this sheet.

1. Definition of the problem (goal of the group):

2. Analysis of the problem:

3. Criteria for solution (existence or worth):

4. Alternative solutions:

5. Evaluation and selection of one solution:

6. Plan for implementation:

Rate the group	Poor						Excellent
Followed the steps in the decision-making sequence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adequately defined the problem and/or goal of the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Summarized group consensus at the end of each step *before* going on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Presented and discussed several alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Made explicit the criteria for solving the problem (determining existence or worth)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adequately examined the consequences of the solution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Developed a plan for evaluating and changing the solution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The purpose of this feedback is not to force groups into rigidly adhering to a format. Rather, the purpose is to keep them informed on their progress. The form reports on the major comments, and the people making those comments, which influenced the direction of the discussion. Although the DSG follows the Reflective Thinking pattern, it can be modified to match any format.

Developing Effective Groups

Participation

Student attitudes toward participating in a small group can be assessed by administering the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension.[75] The instrument reflects students' attitudes toward group participation. The score can also be used by the instructor as a baseline for evaluating and critiquing subsequent participation. One problem facing instructors evaluating the student groups is the problem of silent members. Are these individuals silent because they have nothing to contribute? Or, are they silent because even when they are prepared and thoughtful, they find participating in the group context unpleasant or otherwise unrewarding? The instrument's attitudinal scores provide the instructor with some insight into the individual's behavior within the groups.

Personal Report of Communication Apprehension

Instructions: This instrument is composed of twenty-four statements concerning your feelings about communication with other people. Please indicate in the space provided the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether you (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) are undecided, (4) disagree, or (5) strongly disagree with each statement. There are no right or wrong answers. Many of the statements are similar to other statements. Do not be concerned about this. Work quickly, just record your first impression.

___ 1. I dislike participating in group discussions.
___ 2. Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.
___ 3. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.
___ 4. I like to get involved in group discussions.
___ 5. Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous.
___ 6. I am calm and relaxed while participating in meetings.
___ 7. Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting.
___ 8. Usually I am calm and relaxed while participating in meetings.
___ 9. I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting.
___ 10. I am afraid to express myself at meetings.
___ 11. Communicating at meetings usually makes me uncomfortable.
___ 12. I am very relaxed when answering questions at meetings.
___ 13. While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance, I feel very nervous.
___ 14. I have no fear of speaking up in conversations.
___ 15. Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations.
___ 16. Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations.
___ 17. While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed.
___ 18. I'm afraid to speak up in conversations.
___ 19. I have no fear of giving a speech.
___ 20. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.
___ 21. I feel relaxed while giving a speech.
___ 22. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.
___ 23. I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.
___ 24. While giving a speech I get so nervous, I forget facts I really know.

To Score: Take your numerical score for each question and place in the appropriate place in the four equations. By starting with 18 points, the addition and subtraction of your scores will give you a communication apprehension score for each of the four categories as well as a combined score.

Group = 18 − (1) + (2) − (3) + (4) − (5) + (6)
Meeting = 18 − (7) + (8) + (9) − (10) − (11) + (12)
Dyadic = 18 − (13) + (14) − (15) + (16) + (17) − (18)
Public = 18 + (19) − (20) + (21) − (22) + (23) − (24)
Overall = Group + Meeting + Dyadic + Public

The Sociogram and the Member Speaking Time forms (pages 17–20) describe to individuals the extent of their participation. Once the results of the observations have been returned, the individual or group can be challenged to discuss the disparity (assuming one exists) between the number of utterances and the length of time of those utterances of the group members. Why do discrepancies exist? Assuming "equal participation" is a goal/norm of the group, what can the group do to implement that goal? Observers can also evaluate the participation of the individual. A caveat: evaluations of participation of group members is fraught with error because so many variables operate during the course of discussion. However, peer and instructor evaluation can encourage the student as a group participant if the evaluation is reasonably objective and the feedback specific. One tool to provide evaluative feedback is the Discussant Rating Form, which reports an evaluation based upon the presence or absence of specific observable behaviors.

Discussant Rating Form

Name _____

Instructions: Circle the number that best reflects your evaluation of the discussant. Circle those behaviors you observed displayed by the discussant.

	Superior				Poor	Absent
Contributions to the Task	5	4	3	2	1	0
Asks to have goal identified						
Asks for information						
Identifies goals						
Gives information						
Contributes ideas and suggestions						
Keeps on the subject						
Provides specific, accurate, and thorough information						

	Superior				Poor	Absent
Contributions to Group Maintenance	5	4	3	2	1	0
Resolves differences						
Develops informal atmosphere						
Provides tension release						
Reinforces desired behavior						
Avoids monopolizing discussion						
Discourages the monopolizer						
Listens to others and responds						
Avoids the extremes of participation						
Encourages group unity						
Contributions to Group Leadership	5	4	3	2	1	0
Starts discussion						
Encourages participation						
Clarifies contributions						
Summarizes						
Resolves differences						
Stimulates and directs group toward solution						
Develops informal atmosphere						
Explores all aspects of subject						
Brings group to conclusion						
Contributions to the Problem-Solving Process	5	4	3	2	1	0
Asks for solutions						
Gives solutions						
Directs group toward solutions						
Clarifies criteria for solutions						
Evaluates solutions						
Encourages systematic analysis of the questions						
Encourages goal and question clarification						
Evaluates ideas, not people						
Quality of Communication Skills	5	4	3	2	1	0
Clear expression						
Relevant contributions						
Conversational quality						
Physically active						
Disagrees on ideas, not people						
Listens to others						
Provides specific and accurate information						

Self-Evaluation of Participation

Of course, the discussants can evaluate their own participation. The self-evaluation can take the form of a reaction paper in which the student analyzes and critiques his or her contribution to the task and maintenance of the group. The self-evaluation also can be undertaken as a Postdiscussion Opinionnaire.

Postdiscussion Opinionnaire

Instructions: Circle the number that best reflects your opinion of your behavior in the discussion. For those items you viewed negatively, write a brief description of what you can do to improve.

1. I was informed on the topic and well prepared for the discussion.

Completely			Can't Decide			Not at All
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

2. I was comfortable and pleased with my frequency of participation.

Completely			Can't Decide			Not at All
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

3. I was satisfied with the information and opinions I contributed.

Completely			Can't Decide			Not at All
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

4. I was involved in the discussion of the group.

Completely			Can't Decide			Not at All
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

5. I was satisfied with the extent to which I listened, responded to, and encouraged other members.

Completely			Can't Decide			Not at All
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Total Score ____

Very Satisfied with My Participation	(33–35)
Satisfied with My Participation	(23–32)
Can't Decide on My Feelings of Satisfaction	(18–22)
Dissatisfied with My Participation	(8–17)
Very Dissatisfied with My Participation	(5–7)

The opinionnaire can be used alone or as a springboard to a reaction paper. In the paper, students describe and critique themselves. The results of the opinionnaire can be combined with the results of the

Sociogram, the Member Speaking Time form, and the Discussant Rating Form to draw a "picture" of the participation behavior of the individual during any discussion.

Conformity

Standards, or the group norms, are rules for determining appropriate and inappropriate behavior. Any of the activities presented in this text can be used as a basis for observing normative behavior. For example, regardless of the task, one norm usually observed is "no interruptions when others are speaking." Some individuals, however, will interrupt. The class can discuss how people react to the interruption, including the feelings of the interrupted person about themselves and about the interrupter; the impact an interruption has upon the task achievement; and the impact an interruption has upon the socio-emotional atmosphere of the group.

Observing Norms in Action

Divide the class into pairs and ask them to observe out-of-class groups (e.g., the student government, the faculty government, a church group, the school board, the city council, the county commission, or any group that meets regularly). Ask the dyad to observe the behaviors of the individuals within the group, then to infer from the regular behaviors the implicit norms of the group. For example, after watching a city commission for two or three meetings, the pair might infer that commission members do not talk directly to members of the audience. To address the audience in any way, verbally or by turning and facing them when they make remarks to other commission members, is considered an error of form. Some norms will be explicit, such as directing all members of the courtroom to rise as the judge enters, or the requirement that all participants in a court session address the judge as "Your Honor." Norms that govern classroom behavior may be discussed also. Some of these norms are learned in other settings and applied to the college classroom. For example, the requirement that students are to raise their hand if they wish to address the instructor or the class. Other norms may be learned in a specific classroom, such as addressing the instructor by his or her first name.

Norming before Performing

In an article emphasizing the effectiveness of learning groups, Spich and Keleman argue that much of the apparent wasted effort (process loss or process cost) results from the continuous working out of nor-

mative expectations of groups.[76] They recommend that groups *explicitly agree* upon a set of norms *at the outset* of a group's work rather than waiting for these norms to evolve. Certainly some standards for behavior will emerge as the group develops its own life. However, their recommendation is that many group behaviors can be carried from group to group and therefore can be made explicit at the beginning of a group's life. The research identified sixty-eight behaviors universal enough to be adaptive to a variety of group settings.

Behaviors with Normative Value

1. Do a fair share of the work.
2. Check to make sure everyone is clear on what is to be done.
3. Be concise and clear when talking.
4. Encourage planning, including the short-range agenda and the long-range goal.
5. Encourage open and candid opinions about issues.
6. Listen carefully to other people's ideas, even if they have a different point of view.
7. Do outside preparation.
8. Help the group to organize work (e.g., splitting assignments).
9. Make group members feel at ease when talking with them.
10. Involve people by asking questions.
11. Ask questions when unclear on matters.
12. Propose specific analysis of any pros and cons of the decision at hand.
13. Do less than their fair share of work.
14. Follow through on tasks and activities.
15. Be grouchy and grumpy, complaining about the work and other things.
16. Help other members when they request assistance.
17. Talk as though they had their mouth in gear and their brain shut off.
18. Restate or clarify objectives of the group.
19. Treat all group members as equals.
20. Paraphrase or restate what is said in order to check meaning.
21. Let personal differences with other group members interfere with group activity.
22. Continue to look at different ways to solve the problem.
23. Bring up alternative suggestions and ideas.
24. Request a response from all members on an issue before a decision is made.

25. Demonstrate flexibility in arranging meeting schedules.
26. Ask about others' feelings.
27. Be stubborn and unwilling to listen to others' ideas.
28. Compliment others for things they have said and done.
29. Openly enjoy working in groups.
30. Be willing to meet with the group when it is necessary to discuss a problem.
31. Respond to suggestions.
32. Make rude remarks.
33. Deal with conflict directly, recognizing it and bringing it to the attention of the group.
34. Express enthusiasm about what the group is doing.
35. Be willing to listen to other people's ideas.
36. Place personal concerns before the group concerns.
37. Offer compliments: "I like how you said that."
38. Promote brainstorming sessions at appropriate times before getting to specifics.
39. Criticize group members' ideas but offer none themselves.
40. Make fun of ideas presented.
41. Encourage budgeting of group's time.
42. Restate their own responsibilities before adjournment to check for agreement.
43. Meet deadlines.
44. Be very serious about group work.
45. Watch the clock.
46. Turn in poor quality work (e.g., handwritten, thrown together).
47. Make critical comments about other people in their absence.
48. Interrupt other members while they are speaking.
49. Make negative comments about ideas presented (e.g., "Forget it, that's dumb!").
50. Show up on time for regularly scheduled meetings.
51. Become sidetracked with small talk.
52. Talk about topics that do not relate to the subject at hand.
53. Start talking when another person is still talking.
54. Voice opinions and openly share ideas.
55. Put off work to a later time (procrastinate).
56. Encourage the group to review its accomplishments to date.
57. Constantly pick fights and bicker with other members.
58. Say "Let's not adjourn the meeting until we have a firm grasp of the problem."
59. Disagree in a nice way.
60. Get group approval on important matters before going ahead.

61. Say "Thank you."
62. Play around and joke when the group is trying to get something done.
63. Be direct and accurate in expressing their own feelings; say what they feel.
64. Encourage assignment of specific people within the group to do certain jobs.
65. "Badmouth" working in groups.
66. Agree just to get things over with.
67. Remind all members of duties and responsibilities before adjourning.
68. Do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.

When the class is divided into activity groups expected to last two or more class sessions, give each member of the group the list of the behaviors. At the first meeting, the initial group decision is to agree on the *most* important of the sixty-eight behaviors for their group. The behaviors are to be ranked in order of importance, reproduced, and distributed to each member. In essence, individual members are being asked to make a "contract" with the group before the group undertakes any of its work. When an individual consistently ignores the norms, the group should indicate the impact this deviation has upon the group and the impressions members have of that individual. The discussion should conclude with a commitment to adhere to the norm, to continue to impose that norm, and to adjust the norm and subsequent expectations for individual behavior.

Normative Performance Contracts

Using the rank-ordered norms for each group, an individual rating scale can be developed. Spich and Keleman suggest a format for such an instrument:[77]

Never e
Seldom d
Occasionally c
Often b
Always a

This person would be expected to
1. Sleep during meetings a b c d e

Please respond to all items. Do not leave any items blank. For this form you are asked to rate _____ .
(individual's name)

Never e
Seldom d
Occasionally c
Often b
Always a

This person would be expected to

1. Do their fair share of the work	a	b	c	d	e
2. Check to make sure everyone is clear on what is to be done	a	b	c	d	e
3. Be concise and clear when talking	a	b	c	d	e
4. Encourage planning, including short range agenda and long range goals	a	b	c	d	e
5. Encourage open and candid opinions about issues	a	b	c	d	e
6. Listen carefully to other people's ideas, even if they have a different point of view	a	b	c	d	e

Such a rating scale could be machine-scored and the results fed back to the group. Individuals can view their own ratings in private or with the instructor. Group members could write a reaction paper discussing their feelings toward the norms the group agreed upon, the extent to which members adhere to those norms, and their individual commitment to the explicit norms or a desire to change them.

Norm Violations

Finally, a fun activity, particularly if no damage is done, is the intentional violation of a norm. For example, a student union of a large midwestern university was decorated with a fountain and pond. Occasionaly visitors threw coins into the pond and made wishes. Generally the area was clean and free from litter. Two groups undertook to violate the norms of the pond. In one case, a group of three individuals took off their shoes and socks, rolled-up their trousers, and waded into the pond to retrieve the coins. These coins were given to some other members of the group, who sat along side of the pond with buckets. The remaining members of the group stood some distance away from the pond and observed the reactions of passersby, noting facial expressions and verbal comments, including voiced threats to get the police or the union authorities.

A second group floated toy ducks in the pond. They used string and sticks to get the ducks to move about. Again, other members of the group were observers. Of course, in both cases the authorities of the university in the union were forewarned! Following both these activities, the observers reported descriptions of the crowd's reactions. The

participants reported on their impressions of reactions and their feelings while engaging in the activity. The class then discussed the reports, including the impact that such violations, if continued, would have upon the operation of the union, the cleanliness of the area, and the general coordination of activities housed within the building.

If assigning a norm exercise, discuss the implications for the adherence to the norm in terms of task achievement and socio-emotional atmosphere. Discuss also Shaw's hypotheses (page 9), including the apparent right of high-status members to deviate more from the norms without fear of sanction than low-status members.

Roles

Interaction Analysis

One way to study roles is to record the verbal behaviors of individuals during discussions. The Bales Interaction Process Analysis is a recognized method for describing an individual's verbal behaviors and the consequent group's interaction.[78]

Bales Interaction Process Analysis

	Member Symbol	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	Total
Socio-Emotional Positive	Shows solidarity; raises others' status; gives help, rewards								
	Shows tension release; jokes, laughs; shows satisfaction								
	Agrees; shows passive acceptance; understands, concurs, complies								
Task Attempted Answers	Gives suggestion, direction								
	Gives opinion, analysis, evaluation; expresses feelings, wishes								
	Gives orientation, information; repeats, clarifies, confirms								

	Member Symbol	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	Total
Task Questions	Asks for orientation, information, repetition, confirmation								
	Asks for opinion, analysis, evaluation, expression of feeling								
	Asks for suggestion, direction, possible ways of action								
Socio-Emotional Negative	Disagrees; shows passive rejection, formality; withholds help								
	Shows tension; asks for help; withdraws out of field								
	Shows antagonism; deflates others' status; defends or asserts self								
	TOTAL								

To complete the interaction analysis, label each member with a letter. The utterances of each member are then recorded in the column under his or her symbol. As the discussion begins, place a check under the letter of the speaker and in one of the categories best describing the utterance. This checking is done for each utterance given during the discussion. At the conclusion of the discussion, totals for the columns reflect the total number of utterances given by an individual. Adding across the rows reveals a total number of utterances within each of the categories. Percentages can be computed that describe the group's interaction: percentage of remarks in each of the categories; percentage of the remarks in the aggregate categories of Socio-Emotional Positive and Negative, Task Answers and Questions.

The percentage of utterances made by an individual for each of the twelve categories can be computed by dividing the total for each of the twelve rows by the total number of utterances by an individual. If an

individual spoke twenty times during the discussion, fifteen of them being suggestions or directions for the group and the other five being scattered among the twelve categories, it might be concluded that the individual's role was an "Information Initiator." If another individual spoke only five times, three of which disagreed with the direction of the group and two of which were direct attacks on another member, he or she, might be described as a "Blocker" or "Aggressor." Once the additions and divisions have been completed, the patterns of several individual members can be compared against the total pattern of group interaction. If the group stays together over time, and if Bales's scores are collected for each time they interact, it may be observed that an individual plays several different roles over time.

By changing the way the utterance is recorded, additional information can be gathered. Instead of a simple check, the letter of the member to whom the remark is addressed can be written. With this technique, the individual members can see to whom they spoke and the nature of their remarks to those individuals. Remarks that are addressed to the group as a whole or to an undetermined target would be indicated with an X. Such information graphically demonstrates that the individual behaves differently towards individual members. The differential treatment affects the roles played by affecting the expectations of the other members.

Role Playing

A more gross way to indicate the roles played by individuals is to request observers to identify individuals they perceive as engaging in certain types of behavior. This can be done by listing the roles and asking the observers to write in the names of individuals who seem to be portraying those roles. In addition, roles can be studied by asking individuals to enact certain behaviors. Generally, this role playing is based upon a set of stereotypes; however, such an exercise does help observers to see what impact roles have upon groups, the individuals, and the process.

To visualize this impact, form discussion groups. Privately give each individual information about the task. Along with task information, briefly describe the behaviors each is to enact during the course of the discussion. The following examples fit these descriptions.

Roles

You are the kind of person who is interested in completing the task. You tend to ask for others to clarify their comments rather	You are the kind of person interested in completing the task. You tend to seek information from others, but not facts so

than initiate your own. You also want authoritative information to be given and so ask others where they got their facts, ideas, opinions. In a phrase, you are an INFORMATION SEEKER.

You are the kind of person who is interested in completing the task. You tend to write down the suggestions of others and to outline what the group has been talking about, but you do not initiate much on your own. In a phrase, you are a RECORDER.

You are the kind of person who is interested in completing the task. You tend to propose new ideas or to offer new goals to the group. You often offer new solutions or new ways to resolve difficulties as they arise. In a phrase, you are an INITIATOR-CONTRIBUTOR.

You are the kind of person who is interested in completing the task. You tend to elaborate upon the contributions of others rather than to initiate new ideas on your own. You offer rationales, justifications, and background information on what others present. In a phrase, you are an ELABORATOR.

You are the kind of person who is interested in completing the task. You tend to summarize the progress of the group and to notice and explicitly remark upon much as the values, beliefs, or attitudes that underline the ideas presented by others. In a phrase, you are an OPINION SEEKER.

You are the kind of person who is interested in completing the task. You tend to compare the contributions of others, and the progress of the group itself, to outside standards. You question the practicality of ideas and the logic of the group purpose. In a phrase, you are an EVALUATOR.

You are the kind of person who is interested in the interpersonal relations in the group. You tend to praise others, to agree with them, and to listen attentively. In a phrase, you are an ENCOURAGER.

You are the kind of person who is interested in the interpersonal relations in the group. You tend to mediate differences between others, to reconcile disagreements, and to use humor to relieve tension. In a phrase, you are a HARMONIZER.

You are interested in seeing that you get something from the group. You tend to explicitly report the value of each contribution you make and to

deviations from the agreed upon goals or procedures. You sometimes question whether or not the group is heading in its agreed upon direction. You do this more than you initiate ideas on your own. In a phrase, you are an ORIENTER.

You are the kind of person who is interested in the interpersonal relations of the group. You offer a compromise by yielding your status, admitting to mistakes, and going more than halfway to meet others when there is disagreement. In a phrase, you are a COMPROMISER.

You are interested in the interpersonal relations of the group. You tend to "go along" with others, to passively accept what others want to do, and to avoid conflict even when you think you are right. In a phrase, you are a FOLLOWER.

You are interested in seeing that you get something out of the group. You tend to be openly critical of others, to disagree with and disapprove of ideas, and to make fun of what the group is doing in order to glorify yourself. In a phrase, you are an AGGRESSOR.

report irrelevant personal achievements. You absolutely resist being placed in an inferior position by anyone. In a phrase, you are a RECOGNITION SEEKER.

You are interested in seeing that you get something from the group. You tend to resist new ideas, to disagree, and to bring up dead issues after the group has gone on to new material. You are not nasty, but feel the group tends to move too quickly. In a phrase, you are a BLOCKER.

You are interested in seeing that you get something from the group. You tend to use the group as a way of getting attention. You horseplay, avoid involvement, and seek attention from members of the opposite sex. In a phrase, you are a PLAYBOY/ PLAYGIRL.

You are interested in seeing that you get something from the group. You tend to assert your superiority, to give directions to others, and to interrupt them. In a word, you are a DOMINATOR.

Role playing for the purpose of acting out the roles described seems to work most effectively when students are engaged in a task demanding that they have opinions and that those opinions be defended. One such activity, which follows, asks students to offer suggestions for how the university can save money.

Case: What Can Students Do?

Higher education, like other services, is suffering financial cuts by the state and federal government. State and federal appropriations are down. What money is being given often arrives late, forcing universities to borrow short-term. In addition, employment opportunities for students on and off campus are down. Further, efforts to balance the federal budget have lead to cuts in social programs, including direct aid to students.

The president of your institution has created a "blue ribbon" task force of some of the university's best students to address the problem of the budget. Specifically, this task force is being asked: What can students do to help restrict the costs of running the university? Presumably, every dollar saved will be diverted into support programs for students: loans, work-study employment, student assistance employment, talent grants, etc.

What can students do to help hold down the costs?

Cohesion

All the activities described in the Practice section can be used to stimulate the development of cohesiveness in groups. For example, students can refer to their cost/benefit analysis, and a class discussion can examine the degree of commitment individuals have to groups with a high benefit compared to those with a relatively low benefit.

Cohesion Assessment

One way to determine the cohesiveness of a group is to use the Bales Interaction Analysis (see pages 48–49). Cohesive groups tend to express solidarity, mutual liking, and positive feelings about group participation. Therefore, if a group is cohesive, more comments should be made in the Socio-Emotional Positive area of the IPA than will groups that are not cohesive. Periodic observation and rating of several groups generates data for comparison between groups working in any one class.

Cohesion can also be determined by utilizing the Cohesiveness Scale developed by Gross.[79]

Cohesiveness Scale

1. How many of your group members fit what you feel to be the ideal of a good member?
   a. *All of them.*
   b. *Most of them.*

c. Some of them.
d. Few of them.
e. None of them.

2. To what degree do you feel that you are included by the group in the group's activities?
   a. *I am included in all the group's activities.*
   b. *I am included in almost all the group's activities.*
   c. I am included in some of the activities, but not in some others.
   d. I don't feel that the group includes me in very many of its activities.
   e. I don't feel that the group includes me in any of its activities.

3. How attractive do you find the activities in which you participate as a member of your group?
   a. *Like all of them very much.*
   b. *Like almost all of them.*
   c. Like some of them, but not others.
   d. Like very few of them.
   e. Like none of them.

4. If most of the members of your group decided to dissolve the group by leaving, would you like an opportunity to dissuade them?
   a. *Would like very much to persuade them to stay.*
   b. *Would like to persuade them to stay.*
   c. Would make no difference to me if they stayed or left.
   d. Would not like to try to persuade them to stay.
   e. Would definitely not like to try to persuade them to stay.

5. If you were asked to participate in another project like this one, would you like to be with the same people who are in your present group?
   a. *Would want very much to be with the same people.*
   b. *Would rather be with the same people than with most others.*
   c. Makes no difference to me.
   d. Would rather be with another group more than present group.
   e. Would want very much to be with another group.

6. How well do you like the group you are in?
   a. *Like it very much.*
   b. *Like it pretty well.*
   c. It's all right.
   d. Don't like it too much.
   e. Dislike it very much.

7. How often do you think your group should meet?
   a. *Much more often than at present.*
   b. *More often than at present.*
   c. No more often than at present.
   d. Less often than at present.
   e. Much less often than at present.

Each individual should circle the letter that best describes his or her answer to each of the seven questions. If the individual's opinion fits within the accepted area (those items italicized), the question is scored with a 1. If their mark does not fall within the italicized responses then the item is scored with a 0. The cohesiveness score of one person rating a group ranges from 0 to 7. The cohesiveness for the group is the sum of the individual scores. The responses could be machine scored and the results fed back to the group. The group could then be assigned to discuss their reaction to the perception of cohesiveness. Assuming the cohesiveness of the group was perceived as less than desired, the group could discuss the reasons ("a task not attractive," "hidden conflicts between members," "rewards insufficient to outweigh the costs," etc.) and group commitment could be made to remedy the problems.

Puzzle Competition

Cohesiveness can be enhanced when groups compete on some tasks.[80] Any activity that pits one group against another may develop cohesion. Divide the class into groups of five or six, with one observer for each group. Give each group a jigsaw puzzle, one consisting of between fifty to one-hundred pieces. Give each group five minutes to look at the pieces, make some estimate as to how those pieces come together, and agree upon how the group will work (e.g., whether one person will move the pieces instructed by others or whether every person can move and touch every piece). Then give the groups ten minutes to put the puzzle together, with the promise that the group that completes the puzzle correctly the fastest will receive some reward.

When the activity is completed, ask the group observers to report on their perception of the group's work rules as well as how well the group worked together. A postactivity discussion of the group's process can be enhanced if some measurement of group cohesion is made and fed back to the group.

Leadership

Authoritarian-Democratic-Laissez-Faire Styles

Create groups with five members to discuss the "Opinionnaire on Womanhood," (p. 30) Assign two observers to each group. Observers may

use one of the tools for assessing interaction or the roles played by individual members. Without informing the class, select leaders for these groups. Give each of the leaders the opinionnaire forms for the group and a note describing how they ought to behave.[81]

Authoritarian

Do not pass the written problem around but read it to the group. Express what you consider to be the desirable solution and try to bring the group to this solution. Express your solution as the group answer but make allowances for a minority point of view if pushed. Direct all the comments during the discussion.

Democratic

Pass the written problem around and get reactions from all members. Try to summarize or synthesize at different points and be sure everyone gets a chance to speak. Note your opinion, but just as a member. Try to create a group consensus or give a majority/minority report as a final solution.

Laissez-Faire

Pass the written problem and tell the group they have a problem to solve. Do not take responsibility for directing the discussion and do not express a strong personal solution. Give the group solution only if no one else will.

After the activity, ask the observers to report their perceptions of the group and the group's activities, including the way in which it completed the task, the apparent commitment of members to the task, and the length of time used to complete the task. Then ask the members of the group to report on how they felt about the workings of the group, including leadership. Finally, inform each group which leadership style was used, noting the feelings of individual members toward the "leader" and the observers' impressions about the group's workings, the cohesiveness, the time, and the general feeling of satisfaction with the group. Presumably, members of the democratic group should feel better about themselves, the leadership, and the way in which the group performed, although usually they will have taken longer to complete the task.

Leadership and Power

Another activity exemplifies the Exploitative-Authoritative, Benevolent-Authoritative, Consultative, and Participative Leader. Divide the

class into groups of four to six. Designate at least one individual to observe the action. Give one member instructions on how they are to "lead" the group in its discussion. To each designated leader give enough tokens for every member to have five. The leaders tell the groups to pool their resources and redistribute the tokens according to some criteria. The group's task is to develop the criteria and to redistribute the tokens. Every member must contribute all tokens to the pool. The group may not redistribute the tokens equally. Before the wealth is distributed, the criteria must be developed; for example, "blue-eyed members receive one token," "seniors receive two tokens," "students carrying more than twenty-one hours receive five tokens," etc. The designated leaders are to behave differently according to the following instructions.

Exploitative-Authoritarian

After instructing the group in their task, absent yourself from the group. Use the excuse that you do not wish your presence to influence their decision. Tell the group that when they have completed the development of criteria, but before they distribute the wealth, they must report to you. While away from the group, develop your own criteria with the first one being that at least half of the chips go to the designated leader. You have already told them that you will carry out the wealth distribution, but that you want their input on the criteria. After reading their list of criteria, reject it. Give them your list of criteria and distribute the wealth according to your list, making sure you receive at least half of the tokens. Offer the justification that you were the designated leader and had more responsibility for the decision of the group than did other members.

Benevolent-Authoritative

Distribute the tokens to each individual and instruct them in the task. Separate yourself from the group but stay relatively close so you can hear their conversations. Justify your being slightly removed by saying you do not wish to influence their discussion but you want to hear what criteria they develop and the rationale for each. Inform the group that they are to report the criteria to you when they are satisfied with their decision and that you will make the redistribution of the tokens. Make notes on the discussion. Add your own criteria. When they report to you, praise them for the work they had done, use most but *not all* of their criteria, and then redistribute the tokens. However, make sure you receive at least one more token than the next highest-paid member.

Consultative

Distribute the tokens to the group members and instruct them in their task. Serve as the discussion leader, asking questions, encouraging participation, and guiding them towards a solution. However, do not offer opinions of your own or participate in the discussion. In your instruction to the group, make it clear that you must make a decision about the redistribution but that you want a thorough discussion in order to guide you. Once they have agreed on a set of criteria, thank them for the work they have done. Then, determine whether you will accept all, some, or none of the criteria that the group has developed. Accept the criteria they give to you with the justification that their discussion had been "reasonable" and had influenced "your thinking." However, add one criteria that you think is useful and then redistribute the tokens using the group's and your own criteria.

Participative

Give each member of the group their share of the tokens. Instruct them in their task, then guide the group by asking questions, monitoring the interaction, and keeping them on track toward a decision. *You are to participate as if you were only a member*, offering opinions, interjecting facts, challenging ideas, etc. To an observer, it should appear that the group had no designated leader. After the group reaches its decision, with the result and criteria reported, ask each member to take from the group's pool his or her appropriate number of tokens.

Observers can complete any one of the observational group assessment tools and can be appointed to specifically watch the behavior of the leader. Inform the observers to be particularly aware of the group's reaction to the final distribution of the tokens. Finally, observers should record the time it takes to complete the task. Presumably groups will be most happy with the Participative style, although that group should take longer to complete its task. Expect the group under the Exploitive-Authoritative leader to have the most negative reaction toward the actions of the leader and to be the least satisfied group. Discuss with the class their reactions to the group process, the leader, and the final decision of the leader.

Self-Assessment of Leadership Ability

Ask the observers to report their observations and assessment, the length of time used by the group, and their perceptions of group cohe-

siveness before and after the distribution of the tokens. Ask each student to complete the Leadership Behavior Opinionnaire before coming to class (this instrument can be used independently or as part of any assignment).[82]

Leadership Behavior Opinionnaire

Instructions: Circle the letter to the left that most appropriately describes your likely behavior—(A) always, (F) frequently, (O) occasionally, (S) seldom, or (N) never—in connection with the given statement. Each of the items below describes aspects of leadership behavior; respond to each one according to the way in which you would be *most likely* to act if you were part of a problem-solving group.

When I am a member of a problem-solving group . . .

A:F:O:S:N 1. I offer facts, give my opinions and ideas, and provide suggestions and relevant information to help the group discussion.

A:F:O:S:N 2. I warmly encourage all members of the group to participate, giving them recognition for their contributions, demonstrating receptivity and openness to their ideas, and being generally friendly and responsive to them.

A:F:O:S:N 3. I ask for facts, information, opinions, ideas, and feelings from the group members to help the group discussion.

A:F:O:S:N 4. I try to persuade members to analyze constructively their differences in opinions and ideas, searching for common elements in conflicting or opposing ideas or proposals, and trying to reconcile disagreements.

A:F:O:S:N 5. I propose goals and tasks in order to start action within the group.

A:F:O:S:N 6. I try to relieve group tension and increase the enjoyment of group members by joking, suggesting breaks, and proposing fun approaches to group work.

A:F:O:S:N 7. I give direction to the group by developing plans on how to proceed with group work and by focusing members' attention on the tasks to be done.

A:F:O:S:N 8. I help communication among group members by showing good communication skills and by making sure that what each member says is understood by all.

A:F:O:S:N 9. I pull together related ideas or suggestions made by group members and restate and summarize the major points discussed by the group

A:F:O:S:N 10. I ask members how they are feeling about the way in which the group is working and about each other, as well as share my own feelings about group work and the way the members interact.

A:F:O:S:N 11. I coordinate group work by showing relationships among various ideas or suggestions, by pulling ideas and suggestions together, and by drawing together activities of various subgroups and members.

A:F:O:S:N 12. I observe the process by which the group is working and use my observations to help in examining the effectiveness of the group.

A:F:O:S:N 13. I determine why the group has difficulty in working effectively and what blocks progress in accomplishing the group's goals.

A:F:O:S:N 14. I express group standards, norms, and goals in order to make members constantly aware of the direction in which the work is going—the progress being made toward the group goal—and in order to get continued open acceptance of group norms and procedures.

A:F:O:S:N 15. I energize the group by stimulating group members to produce a higher quality of work.

A:F:O:S:N 16. I listen to and serve as an interested audience for other group members, weighing the ideas of others and going along with the movement of the group when I do not disagree with its action.

A:F:O:S:N 17. I examine the practicality and the workability of the ideas, evaluate the quality of alternative solutions to group problems, and apply decisions and suggestions to real situations in order to see how they will work.

A:F:O:S:N 18. I accept and support the openness of other group members, reinforcing them for taking risks and encouraging individuality in group members.

A:F:O:S:N 19. I compare group decisions and accomplishments with group standards, measuring accomplishments against goals.

A:F:O:S:N 20. I promote the open discussion of conflicts between group members in order to resolve disagreements and increase group togetherness.

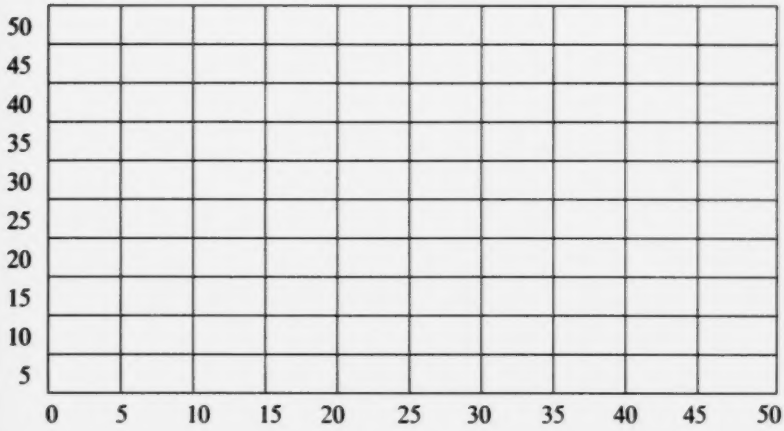
Score your Leadership Behavior Opinionnaire: A = 5; F = 4; 0 = 3; S = 2; N = 1. Add the scores for each of the twenty questions to receive a total score (100 would be high).

To determine the mix of task to socio-emotional emphasis, add the scores for the questions that focused upon task or socio-emotional concerns.

(Each item emphasizes some function of leadership)

Task	*Socio-Emotional*
1 ____ information- and opinion-giver	2 ____ participation encourager
3 ____ information- and opinion-seeker	4 ____ harmonizer and compromiser
5 ____ starter	6 ____ tension reliever
7 ____ direction-giver	8 ____ communication helper
9 ____ summarizer	10 ____ emotional climate evaluator
11 ____ coordinator	12 ____ process observer
13 ____ diagnosis-giver	14 ____ standard setter
15 ____ energizer	16 ____ active listener
17 ____ reality-tester	18 ____ trust builder
19 ____ evaluator	20 ____ interpersonal problem-solver
____ Total Task	____ Total Socio-Emotional

Using both scores, locate yourself on the Task-Socio-Emotional Grid



Score the instrument in class. Ask each individual to place themselves on the leadership grid. A reaction paper can be written concerning the individual member's responses to the accuracy of the score.

If strong positive feelings have been developed within the class itself, the class can be divided into pairs. Have each pair read their partner's responses to the Leadership Opinionnaire. Following that, students either report orally or write paragraphs to their partners detailing their reactions to that member's self-assessment. Again, the focus of this activity is upon the accuracy of the self-perception. Particularly note those perceptions that both members share and those on which they disagree.

Leadership Functions

The functional approach to leadership can be examined both through the Leadership Behavior Opinionnaire and through the observation of member behavior by using the roles played. That is, the Leadership Behavior Opinionnaire identifies certain behaviors that the individual displays in groups. The extent to which they are frequent contributors identifies what functions they perform in the group. In a like manner, the instruments that have observers assess the roles played also determine the functions of the individual members. Finally, the observer and self-perceptions can be corroborated with the Bales Interaction Analysis.

Evaluating Group Usefulness

Evaluative Interviews

Questions about the utility of groups within organizations can be added to the interview activity described earlier (page 22). Some such questions are: When are groups most useful in the decision making, choice making, problem solving and learning of the organization? When are they least useful? When are groups the most efficient means for solving a problem or making a decision? What tasks/problems does your organization most frequently assign to groups? The results of the interviews can be reported back either in written form as a paper or as contributions to a class discussion on the usefulness of groups.

Group Strengths and Weaknesses

Divide the class into groups of five to seven. Instruct each group to create a list of strengths and weaknesses of task groups (the same assignment could be given for social or learning groups). Ask the groups

to rank these strengths and weaknesses with 1 being the most important. Have each group report the results of its discussion to the class and create a composite of strengths and weaknesses in rank order.

This activity can be extended by returning the lists to the originating groups along with the class composite. Using the lists and composite for reference, ask each group to indicate what it might do to reinforce the strengths of groups and what actions it might take to correct, or at least minimize, the weaknesses.

A Note to the Instructor

Cooperative Learning

Small group discussion can be studied as a unique setting for human interaction, as the focus of this book, or as a tool in the instructor's workbox for teaching any course content. Learning groups, those collectives organized to develop student understanding, attitudes and skills about specific subject matter, have been successfully used by teachers in virtually all disciplines.[83] Using the "learning through discussion" model, students can be taught how to study assignments and be prepared to discuss them by following the Preparation for Discussion Outline.[84] Eight steps help guide the individual students through the material and structure the subsequent in-class discussion:

1. definition of terms and concepts
2. student's version of the author's message
3. major themes developed
4. allocation of time
5. synthesis of major themes and subtopics
6. integration of new with previously learned concepts
7. application of new material to life situations
8. evaluation of the material

The student should come to class with notes from the reading assignment organized by the eight steps. The classroom discussion reinforces, modifies/corrects, uses, and rewards the individual's understanding of the reading. Following the discussion of the content, students can evaluate and discuss the discussion, thereby encouraging their understanding and application of the material while improving their understanding and use of small group discussion.

The current conceptualization of cooperative learning uses small groups for the teaching of both content and process, basing rewards and/or recognition upon the *group's* performance.[85] At least six different

methods have been developed to coordinate students, helping students to learn: Student Teams Achievement Divisions, Teams-Games-Tournaments, Team-Assisted Individualization, Jigsaw, Learning Together, and Group Investigation.[86] The results of research on these methods suggest success in learning and understanding of group process:

1. Academic achievement is usually better than that reached through traditional techniques.
2. For the learning outcomes of knowledge, calculation, and application of principles, cooperative learning is more effective than traditional methods when they are structured, include individual accountability for team members, and reward successful groups.
3. For the learning outcomes of concept identification, problem analysis, judgment, and evaluation, cooperative learning techniques using less structure appear more effective than traditional techniques.
4. Race relationships improve.
5. Student concern for one another is enhanced.
6. The individual student learner's self-esteem appears to improve.
7. Students' appreciation of school is enhanced.[87]

While many good reasons suggest that the use of rewarded small groups facilitates learning, the research on the competitiveness and cooperativeness of group work and how individual and groups are rewarded has been understudied.[88] Essentially the competitive goal structure is criticized as being antithetical to the development of coordination and cooperation. The cooperative award structure frequently may be a disincentive for the most productive individual members of a group, yet individual rewards may encourage destructive intragroup competition. Therefore, a mixture of cooperative and individual awards appears to be a way of producing positive group activity while encouraging the individual in the group.[89]

Finally, if the twin goals of content learning and process learning are to be achieved within a classroom, then most group activities should contain some description, evaluation, and discussion of group interaction. The instruments described in this booklet can help focus such observation and evaluation, and all can be integrated into "cooperative learning" or "learning through discussion" interactions. In addition, there are other many more instruments in the literature.

Notes

1. J. Naisbitt, *Megatrends: Ten New Directions Transforming Our Lives*. (New York: Warner Books, 1984), 175.
2. W. C. Swap and Associates, eds., *Group Decision Making*. (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1984), 9.
3. Ibid.
4. S. Wilson, *Informal Groups: An Introduction* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1978), 30.
5. M. E. Shaw, *Group Dynamics: The Psychology of Small Group Behavior*, 3rd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1981), 64–65.
6. Ibid., 66.
7. C. L. Ridgeway, *The Dynamics of Small Groups* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1983), 11.
8. R. E. Kleck and C. Rubenstein, "Physical Attractiveness, Perceived Attitude Similarity, and Interpersonal Attraction in an Opposite-Sex Encounter," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 31 (1975): 107–114.
9. D. Byrne and D. Nelson, "The Effect of Topic Importance and Attitude Similarity-Dissimilarity on Attraction in a Multi-Stranger Design," *Psychonomic Science* 3 (1965): 449–450.
10. D. Byrne, W. Griffitt, and D. Stefaniak, "Attraction and Similarity of Personality Characteristics," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 5 (1967): 82–90.
11. F. A. Blanchard, R. H. Weigel, and S. W. Cook, "The Effect of Relative Competence of Group Members upon Interpersonal Attraction in Cooperating Interracial Groups," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 32 (1975): 519–530.
12. Shaw, p. 116.
13. B. R. Patton and K. Griffin, *Decision-Making Group Interaction*, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper & Row, 1978), 12.
14. A. H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper & Row, 1954), 80–106.
15. W. C. Schutz, *The Interpersonal Underworld* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Science & Behavior Books, 1966), 13–25.
16. J. Thibaut and H. Kelly, *The Social Psychology of Groups* (New York: Wiley, 1959).
17. J. E. Baird and S. B. Weinberg, *Group Communication: The Essence of Synergy*, 2nd ed., (Dubuque, Iowa: Brown, 1981), 66.
18. G. P. Huber, *Managerial Decision Making* (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, 1980), 8.
19. S. A. Beebe and J. T. Masterson, *Communication in Small Groups: Principles and Practices* (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, 1982), 118.
20. H. L. Goodall, *Small Group Communication in Organizations* (Dubuque, Iowa: Brown, 1985), 213.
21. C. E. Larson, "Forms of Analysis and Small Group Problem-Solving," *Speech Monographs* 36 (1969): 452–455.

22. R. Y. Hirokawa, "Discussion Procedures and Decision-Making Performance: A Test of a Functional Perspective," *Human Communication Research* 12 (1985): 203–224.
23. R. J. Yinger, "Can We Really Teach Them to Think?," in *New Directions for Teaching and Learning: Fostering Critical Thinking*, ed. R. E. Young (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1980), 12.
24. A. Zander, *Making Groups Effective* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1983), 22.
25. I. Janis, *Victims of Groupthink* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1972), 148.
26. R. Cattell, "Concepts and Methods in the Measurement of Group Syntality," *Psychological Review* 55 (1948): 48–53.
27. J. C. McCroskey, "The Communication Apprehension Perspective," *Communication: Journal of the Communication Association of the Pacific* 12 (1983): 1–26.
28. D. Millar and J. Yerby, "Regression Analysis of Selected Personal Characteristics as Predictors of Small Group Leadership," *Communication: Journal of the Communication Association of the Pacific* 13 (1983): 141–154.
29. G. L. Wilson and M. S. Hanna, *Groups in Context: Leadership and Participation in Small Groups* (New York: Random House, 1986), 40.
30. S. Wilson, 36.
31. Shaw, 307–312.
32. Beebe and Masterson, 59.
33. A. P. Hare, *Creativity in Small Groups* (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1982), 122.
34. Shaw, 276.
35. B. A. Fisher, *Small Group Decision Making*, 2nd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1980), 169.
36. Baird and Weinberg, 175.
37. Ibid.
38. K. D. Benne and P. Sheats, "Functional Roles of Group Members," *Journal of Social Issues* 1 (1948): 41–49.
39. Beebe and Masterson, 62.
40. Zander, 4.
41. Janis, 4.
42. S. Drescher, G. Burlingame, and A. Fuhriman, "Cohesion: An Odyssey in Empirical Understanding," *Small Group Behavior* 16 (1985): 12.
43. J. Stokes, A. Fuehrer, and L. Childs, "Group Members' Self-Disclosures: Relation to Perceived Cohesion," *Small Group Behavior 14 (1983): 63–76.*
44. R. Costell and L. Koran, "Compatibility and Cohesiveness in Group Psychotherapy: A Re-Evaluation and Extension," *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease* 2 (1972): 99–104.
45. W. Piper, et al. "Cohesion as a Task Bonding Groups," *Human Relations* 36 (1983): 93–108.
46. R. Shipley, "Effect of a Pregroup Collective Project on the Cohesiveness of Inpatient Therapy Groups," *Psychological Reports* 41 (1977): 79–85.

47. J. Stokes, "Components of Group Cohesion: Intermember Attraction, Instrumental Value, and Risk Taking," *Small Group Behavior* 14 (1983): 163–173.
48. J. Flowers, C. Booraem, and K. Hartman, "Client Improvement on Higher and Lower Intensity Problems as a Function of Group Cohesiveness," *Psychotherapy, Theory, Research and Practice* 18 (1981): 246–251.
49. A. Lott and B. Lott, "Group Cohesiveness, Communication Level, and Conformity," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 62 (1961): 408–412.
50. T. Lodahl and L. Porter, "Psychometric Score Patterns, Social Characteristics, and Productivity of Small Industrial Work Groups," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 45 (1961): 73–79.
51. R. Bednar and C. Battersby, "The Effects of Specific Cognitive Structure on Early Group Development," *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* 12 (1976): 513–522.
52. Stokes, 170.
53. Recall the previous descriptions of the group qualities of perception, motivation, roles and norms.
54. Janis, 4.
55. Zander, 5.
56. Ibid.
57. B. M. Bass, *Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership*, rev. ed. (New York: Free Press, 1981), 7–14.
58. B. A. Fisher, "Leadership as Medium: Treating Complexity in Group Communication Research," *Small Group Behavior* 16 (1985): 167–196.
59. Beebe and Masterson, 148.
60. Ibid., 149.
61. R. Likert, *New Patterns of Management* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961), 54–75.
62. Baird and Weinberg, 214.
63. Ibid., 216–217.
64. P. Hersey and K. Blanchard, "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership," *Training and Development Journal* 23 (1969): 26–34.
65. B. A. Fisher, "Metaphors of Leadership." Paper presented to Small Group Communication Conference, Pennsylvania State University, 1982: 25.
66. Shaw, 77.
67. J. Kelly, *Organizational Behavior: An Existential-Systems Approach*, rev. ed., (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1974), 317.
68. Shaw, 67–68.
69. D. Johnson and R. Johnson, "Conflict in the Classroom: Controversy and Learning," *Review of Educational Research* 49 (1979): 51–70.
70. Shaw, 79.
71. Zander, 49.
72. For assistance in preparing for the interview, direct students to books on interviewing including, but not limited to: M. Z. Sincoff and R. S. Goyer,

Interviewing (New York: Macmillan, 1984); E. W. Skoper, *Situational Interviewing* (New York: Harper & Row, 1986); C. Stewart and W. B. Cash, *Interviewing: Procedures and Practices* (Dubuque, Iowa: Brown, 1974).

73. FIRO-B may be ordered from: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., 577 College Avenue, Palo Alto, California 94306.
74. Schutz, 61–65.
75. J. C. McCroskey, "The Communication Apprehension Perspective," *Communication* 12 (1983): 1–25.
76. R. S. Spich and K. Keleman, "Explicit Norm Structuring Process: A Strategy for Increasing Task-Group Effectiveness," *Group and Organization Studies* 10 (1985): 37–59.
77. Ibid., 53.
78. R. Bales, *Interaction Process Analysis: A Method for the Study of Small Group* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1950): 59.
79. E. F. Gross, "An Empirical Study of the Concepts of Cohesiveness and Compatibility" (honors thesis: Harvard University). The scale and scoring are described in W. C. Schutz, *The Interpersonal Underworld*, 138–139.
80. C. Book and K. Galvin, *Instruction in and about Small Group Discussion* (Urbana, Ill.: ERIC/RCS and SCA, 1975), 21. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 113 773.
81. Ibid., 35.
82. D. W. Johnson and F. Johnson, *Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975), 19–25.
83. L. Miles and H. W. Stubblefield, "Learning Groups in Training and Education," *Small Group Behavior* 13 (1982): 311–320.
84. W. E. Hill, *Learning Thru Discussion: Guide for Leaders and Members of Discussion Groups*, (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1977).
85. R. E. Slavin, "Cooperative Learning," *Review of Educational Research* 50 (1980): 315–342.
86. R. E. Slavin, "Cooperative Learning: Student Teams. What Research Says to the Teacher." National Education Association, Washington, D.C. (1982). ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 222 489.
87. Slavin, "Cooperative Learning," 337–338.
88. See. R. E. Slavin, "Classroom Reward Structure: An Analytical and Practical Review," *Review of Educational Research* 47 (1977): 633–650; and D. W. Johnson and R. T. Johnson, "Instructional Goal Structure: Cooperative, Competitive, or Individualistic," *Review of Educational Research* 44 (1974): 213–240.
89. Ibid., 238.

PUBLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS

ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHING SPEAKING AND LISTENING: GRADES 7–12, Pamela Cooper, Ed. Over 100 activities, grouped for 7–9 and 10–12 grades. 1985, 160 pp. $11.95.

AFFECTING CRITICAL THINKING THROUGH SPEECH, Virginia O'Keefe. Reviews theory and provides exercises to develop thinking skills. Exercises involve question making, debate, argumentation, role playing, drama, literature. For high school, community college, and basic speech college courses. 1986, 46 pp. $6.00.

COMMUNICATION CONSULTING: ANOTHER TEACHING OPTION, Evan E. Rudolph and Barbara R. Johnson. Practical guide to basic consulting principles and practices. 1983, 58 pp. $6.00.

EVALUATING CLASSROOM SPEAKING, Douglas G. Bock and E. Hope Bock. Reviews research on evaluating speeches and provides many suggestions and forms for classroom practice, 1981, 42 pp. $4.00.

INTRODUCTION TO SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION, Dan Pyle Millar. Theory and exercises to develop student skills in group discussion, decision making, and problem solving. 1986, 68 pp. $6.00.

LISTENING INSTRUCTION, Andrew D. Wolvin, Carolyn Gwynn Coakley. For high school/college teachers. Fundamentals of listening and 38 exercises. 1979, 42 pp. $3.00.

A TV NEWS APPROACH TO ORAL COMMUNICATION, Pat Kane, S.S.J. A television studio-workshop approach, includes syllabus for one-semester course with units on broadcast journalism and the opportunity for students to deliver seven oral presentations. 1985, 50 pp. $6.00.

WORKSHOPS ON FAMILY COMMUNICATION, Kathleen Galvin. Encourages communication professionals to get involved in family enrichment programs and gives instruction on how to organize workshops, recruit participants, and run sessions. 1985, 42 pp. $6.00.

Published by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills and the Speech Communication Association

Order from the **SPEECH COMMUNICATION ASSOCIATION,** 5105 Backlick Rd., Bldg. E, Annandale, VA 22003. Orders under $20.00 must be prepaid.